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ABSTRACT

This guide is a companion to its predecessors, "Linguistically and Culturally Diverse: African American and Hmong" and "Language Sample Analysis: The Wisconsin Guide." It focuses on children from American Indian and Spanish speaking populations. It provides information pertaining to: historical background, including legal and social issues; cultural factors influencing learning and language; recommended procedures for appropriate non-biased assessment; data collection as a result of analysis of language samples of typically developing Spanish speaking children; dialectical and phonological patterns that should be considered as differences and not errors or indicators of an impairment or disability; intervention strategies for regular and special education teachers; and case studies. The 19 appendixes present limited English proficiency (LEP) levels of English language learners; recommended tests for speech and language evaluation (Spanish emphasis); translators and interpreters; test evaluation form; checklist for potential discrimination of an assessment instrument; language sample analysis in English of native Spanish speaking children; classroom observation form; classroom teacher questions for self-evaluation prior to making a referral; communication skills inventory for bilingual children; consultation team questionnaire; records review form; teacher interview for consultation team; sample interview forms in English and Spanish; background information for students with LEP; hearing screening considerations; Wisconsin Tribal education directors; and English and Spanish glossaries. (SM)

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Populations: American Indian & Spanish Speaking

Language Sample Analysis Companion Guide
Developed through a grant from the Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction

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Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Students

American Indian and Spanish-Speaking

Cooperative Educational Service Agency No. 9
Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction

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A special thank you to Dr. Jon F. Miller of the University of Wisconsin-Madison who has been a major contributor throughout the development of both *Linguistically and Culturally Diverse* guides.

It was with the development of the *Language Sample Analysis Guide(1992)* that Dr. Miller envisioned companion guides that would provide speech-language pathologists a thorough process to differentiate a language disorder from a language difference. Because of the inherent cultural bias that currently exists within most formal measures of expressive language, Dr. Miller has expanded the tool of Language Sample Analysis (LSA) to document current language status in English or Spanish as well as documenting the child's linguistic change overtime. It is for these contributions and the success of these guides that we thank Dr. Miller.

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Foreword

Wisconsin has long been a leader in the field of education. In an effort to sustain that leadership, educators have recognized that the state must be diligent in their efforts to continually monitor assessment and evaluation methods as well as intervention strategies for students in regular and special education.

In order to address some of these issues, a statewide task force was established to provide information on linguistic and cultural differences for students from the American Indian and Spanish-speaking populations and to develop guidelines in the assessment procedures for students from these populations who are experiencing academic and communication difficulties in the educational environment.

This information is especially timely due to the national trend to the over-identification of minorities in special education programs. It is anticipated that the information in this publication will provide guidance to speech and language pathologists, members of IEP teams, and other school district staff members who are responsible for assessment of students from these target populations.

This guide provides information pertaining to:

- Historical background, including legal and social issues
- Cultural factors influencing learning and language
- Recommended procedures for appropriate non-biased assessment
- Data collection as a result of analysis of language samples of typically developing Spanish-speaking children
- Dialectical and phonological patterns that should be considered as differences and not errors or indicators of an impairment or disability
- Some intervention strategies for regular and special education teachers
- Case studies

This guide is a companion to its predecessors, *Linguistically and Culturally Diverse: African American and Hmong* and *Language Sample Analysis: The Wisconsin Guide*. Although this guide addresses children from the target populations of American Indian and Spanish-speaking, educators in regular and special education will find the information useful in their work with students from other bilingual and cultural groups.

It is my pleasure to offer this publication, *Linguistically and Culturally Diverse: American Indian and Spanish-speaking*, to achieve such purpose.

Elizabeth Burmaster
State Superintendent of Public Instruction

1

Perspectives: Legal, Historical, Ethical, and Demographic

Introduction

For several decades, speech and language pathologists (SLPs) and other special educators have attempted to determine how best to provide services for children whose native language is not English or for children who speak different dialects of English. The central challenge facing speech and language pathologists and other special educators who deal with students from linguistically and culturally diverse (LCD) backgrounds is distinguishing communication differences related to linguistic or cultural factors from communication disorders. This is first and foremost an ethical and legal responsibility. History provides an opportunity to see why this distinction is so important and how these ethical and legal responsibilities evolved.

Two perspectives are critical: congressional and judicial issues starting with the civil rights movement of the 1960s (which includes bilingual acts for groups where English is not the first language) and federal laws that pertain to American Indian people living in the United States. Each ends with the right to a free and appropriate public education for all children.

In 1954, the U.S. Supreme Court ruled in Brown v. Board of Education that segregated education based on race was unequal and unconstitutional. This court ruling set the context for dealing with educational diversity issues. Since then, additional congressional, judicial, and executive actions on behalf of people of color, ethnic minorities, and individuals with disabilities have occurred. Here are some highlights of congressional, judicial, and executive actions that have impacted education.

Congressional Actions

- Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964
- Bilingual Education Act first passed in 1968 and reauthorized under Improving American Schools Act in 1994. Now No Child Left Behind (NCLB) 2001
- Education of All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 and reauthorized as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act in 1997
- Equal Education Opportunity Act of 1974

These acts:

—prohibited discrimination on the basis of race, color, national origin, handicap, or language;

—established due process rights for children and parents;

—ensured students with disabilities who also are limited-English proficient (LEP) their right to access to a "free appropriate public education;"

—mandated non-discriminatory assessment; and

—established that schools must take appropriate action to overcome language barriers that impede equal participation by its students in its instructional programs.

Judicial Actions

- Arreola v. Board of Education (California, 1968)
- Lau v. Nichols (California, 1974)
- Diana v. The State Board of Education (California, 1970)
- Guadalupe v. Tempe Elementary School District (California, 1972)
- Lora v. Board of Education of the City of New York (New York, 1977)
- Larry P. v. Riles, Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of California

(California, 1977)

- Jose P. et.al. v. Ambach et al. (New York City, 1979)
- Martin Luther King, Jr. Elementary School Children et al. v. Ann Arbor School Board (Michigan, 1979)
- Castaneda v. Picard, 1981
- Plyler v. Doe, 1982

These right-to-education lawsuits were similar in that they

—were argued on the basis of biased assessments that led to disproportionate numbers of minorities in special education classes.

—found standardized testing procedures to be racially, culturally, and linguistically discriminatory when test results were used to make special education placements.

—found that the practice of placing English Language Learners (ELLs) in regular classrooms without assistance was unconstitutional.

—established children's right to an appropriate public education regardless of their or their parents' immigration status.

—ensured that evaluation materials cannot be discriminatory on a racial or cultural basis [20 U.S.C.& 1414(b)(3)(A)]

Executive Actions

- U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare Policy Guideline "Identification of Discrimination" (1979)
- Lau Remedies issued by the Office for Civil Rights (1975)
- U.S. Code of Federal Regulations, Number 34, Part 300.532 (a) (1973) Regs CFR034, (1999)
- Bilingual-Bicultural education legislation, Subchapter VII, Section 115 of the Wisconsin State Statutes (1977)
- PI 11 of the Wisconsin Administrative Code, Chapter 115
- PI 13 of the Wisconsin Administrative Code, Chapter 115

These executive actions:

—provide direction to educational agencies and parents,

—clarify the legal rights of individuals with disabilities and persons who are linguistically and culturally diverse, and

—define and establish assistance for the development and implementation of bilingual programs including eligibility criteria for state assistance.

—consider and analyze any cultural or linguistic biases in assessment

In addition to these congressional, judicial, and executive interpretations of law, American Indian people have taken a different road to obtain the same rights to an education as other children in the United States. Those regulations are discussed below.

American Indians and Educational Law

By law, American Indian people are the most regulated people in the United States. Numerous federal laws apply specifically to American Indian people. Many of these laws are the result of treaty rights and governmental interactions with the tribes during the treaty era of the 1800s. Congress ended the treaty era between the federal government and tribes in 1871. Through presidential executive orders and federal

Indian policy, American Indian tribes continue to have their status and identity impacted by their unique relationship with federal and state governments.

American Indian people were given U.S. citizenship in 1924 with the passage of the American Indian Citizenship Act. They were granted citizenship because of their display of patriotism and volunteerism during World War I, when more than 14,000 American Indian men and women enlisted for military service. Until then, many were denied their right to vote in local, state, and national elections.

There have been long debates on the status of American Indian people's standing in U.S. society. Many collections of law and historical books deal with the issue of American Indian people's rights. The first known reference in a treaty between an American Indian tribe and a local unit of government for the education of American Indian children is in a 1768 treaty signed by the Delaware Nation and Dutch settlers in New York state.

Numerous federal and state laws define the rights of American Indian children to an education, which for many have been guaranteed under treaty rights and affirmed by either the federal or state government and the courts. In recent years, many tribes as sovereign nations have begun to develop and pass their own tribal laws. The Menominee Indian Tribe enacted its own tribal ordinance (MITW Ordinance 96-22-Menominee Nation Language and Culture Code) in 1996 that mandates the teaching of Menominee history, culture, and language in all educational institutions located on its reservation. The ordinance also has provisions for the licensing of Menominee language and culture teachers, staff pre-service and in-service programs, and curriculum development and parental involvement in the teaching of the Menominee language and culture.

American Indian children have the same rights and privileges as any other child in the United States when it comes to obtaining an education.

However, Congress or the President of the United States can eliminate all federal funding for programs targeted toward American Indian people, including education, at any time. This is a constant problem for American Indian tribes in their struggle to provide for their members. The federal agencies that provide funding for services to American Indian people do not have the independent authority to make decisions regarding the level of funding appropriations to American Indian tribes; lawmakers do.

In the fiscal area, tribes also encounter a continual lack of sufficient funding to meet the very basic needs of their people, including education. Education is an example of the funding inadequacy by the federal government. Tribal grant schools such as the Menominee Tribal School, Lac Courte Oreilles Ojibwe Schools, and Oneida Nation Tribal School receive about $3,050 per student in their annual base funding through the Indian Student Equalization Program (ISEP) formula from the Office of Indian Education Programs in the Bureau of Indian Affairs. The average per-pupil cost for other Wisconsin Public School children for the 2000-01 school year was $9,042.

The federal government has enacted major laws that impact the education of American Indian children.

Snyder Act (signed November 2, 1921)

The Snyder Act authorized the Department of the Interior, the federal agency responsible for overseeing the affairs of American Indian tribes, to "direct, supervise, and expend such moneys as Congress may from time to time appropriate for the benefit, care and assistance of the Indians throughout the United States for the following purposes: general support and civilization including education" (Deloria, Jr, 1999).

Johnson-O'Malley Act (signed April 16, 1934)

This act provides funds to local school districts that have non-taxable American Indian lands within their service area. School districts are eligible to receive federal funds for the education of American Indian children who attend public school systems. These funds are paid to the district in lieu of property taxes for trust lands owned by the local tribe that the district would normally collect if the tribal land were taxable.

P.L. 81-874 - Title I, Financial Assistance for Local Education Agencies in areas affected by Federal Activities (1953)-Amended

This legislation, commonly referred to as Impact Aid, was passed by Congress in 1950 and provides financial assistance to local K-12 school districts that have tribal lands within their attendance boundaries. It was amended in 1953 to include American Indian reservations on other trust land. These funds are in lieu of property taxes collected from local residents for school operations. Because many tribal lands are held in federal trust as tax-exempt lands by the federal government for the tribe, much like military installations or national parks, the federal government makes payments to the local school district to support the education of American Indian children.

In 1965, Congress determined that Johnson-O'Malley funding and Impact Aid duplicated funding and services. Therefore, school districts that had been receiving Johnson-O'Malley funding for basic instructional services provided to American Indian children have had those funds replaced by funds from the Impact Aid program. Johnson-O'Malley funds now are used to meet the special educational needs of American Indian children. These funds can be used for hiring home-school coordinators or student advocates, cultural activities, counseling services, teacher training, clothing, sports equipment, summer school programs, and so forth. Schools must apply to the federal government to receive these funds. (Caldwell, 2000)

Title I - Elementary and Education Assistance Act of 1965

This federal legislation provides funding for the improvement of the educational performance of all students, including American Indian children, who are educationally and economically disadvantaged. Funding can be used to provide students with a wide range of educational services.

P.L. 93-638 - Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act (as amended by P.L. 100-472) (1978)

The Indian Self-Determination and Education Assistance Act was passed in 1968. This law gives tribes the right to self-govern their affairs and determine their own future. For the first time, tribes could make their own decisions on how they manage their own governmental affairs, determine the use of their resources, provide services to their members, and educate their children.

Many tribes use their right of self-determination to build their community infrastructure (such as governmental operations, housing, educational services, health care services, road and utility construction, businesses including gaming operations, and investments for the future generations).

A phrase often used when discussing tribal self-determination is tribal sovereignty. Sovereignty is defined in the tribal community as the inherent right of tribes to manage their own affairs without the interference of federal, state, or outside influence.

Indian Education Act of 1972

The Indian Education Act (IEA) of 1972 provides funds for urban and reservation schools in response to the Kennedy Report, which found that schools were doing an abysmal job of educating American Indian children. Counseling and remedial programs, adult education programs, and scholarship programs for American Indian students receive these funds. This program also has been known as Title IV, Title V and Title IX.

Title VI of the 1964 Civil Rights Act prohibits discrimination on the basis of a student's race. Under that same provision, a school cannot discriminate against a student for his or her lack of English language abilities or his or her limited-English proficiency. Under this provision of the Civil Rights Act and the U.S. Supreme Court decision in the Lau vs. Nichols case involving the San Francisco School District, public schools must provide bilingual-bicultural education programs. If, in the case of an American Indian student, his or her English language skills are not sufficient to meet the requirements of a regular classroom placement, schools may qualify under Johnson-O'Malley or Indian Education Act funding to provide bilingual-bicultural education programs and tutors to American Indian students.

IEA funds are intended to be supplemental and cannot be used by school districts to provide basic educational services. A school district must have a minimum of ten American Indian students whose parents want a program of services for their children before the district can apply to the U.S. Department of Education for funding (Prevar, 1992).

P.L. 94-142 - Education of All Handicapped Children Act of 1975

American Indian students attending public schools are entitled to the same rights and services for a "free and appropriate education in a least restrictive environment" as their non-Indian peers when placed in special education programs.

American Indian children attending Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) schools are entitled to the same rights and privileges as any child enrolled in an educational program that is to provide a "free and appropriate education." The BIA Office of Indian Education Programs (OIEP) is the office within the U.S. Department of the Interior responsible for providing educational services to American Indian children. Children attending tribal contract or grant schools and boarding schools operated by OIEP receive a funding set-aside from the U.S. Department of Education. The funds are allocated to more than 180 schools funded or operated by the BIA that provide their own special education programs and services.

P.L. 95-341 - American Indian Religious Freedom Act (1978)

Congress passed the American Indian Religious Freedom Act to ensure that American Indian people, like other Americans, have the right and privilege to practice their tribal religions without fear of alienation or discrimination. Several U.S. Supreme Court decisions led to the passage of the act because schools and other institutions discrimi-

nated against American Indian people who wore religious symbols or wore their hair long, which is a symbol of strength and respect in some tribal religion (Prevar, 1992).

American Indian children who wear a tobacco or medicine pouch, or a particular piece of beadwork, may be carrying it as a symbol of their religious beliefs in preparation for their right of passage into adulthood or for another ceremonial practice. The use of tobacco, which is used as a spiritual offering, sometimes may conflict with local school policies regarding the possession of such products.

School administrators and teachers should be aware of tribal customs and, without being offensive toward the individual, learn to respect the customs and traditions of the local tribal community as they would with any other student's religious beliefs.

P.L. 96-608 - Indian Child Welfare Act of 1978

The Indian Child Welfare Act, sometimes called ICWA (Ik-wah), protects the rights of American Indian children brought into the social services system. Historically, many American Indian children have been taken from their families and communities and raised in homes of other cultures. In many instances, state and federal courts and social services departments transferred the American Indian parent's custodial rights to families of other cultures without the parent's permission or input. Often, American Indian children were forcibly taken away from their family and tribe.

The Indian Child Welfare Act requires state, tribal, and local courts to give American Indian parents and members of the extended family the first opportunity to the custodial rights of an American Indian child brought into the social services system. This also includes cases where American Indian children are placed for adoption through state, local, and tribal courts.

Educators working with American Indian children should be cognizant that the American Indian student may not be living with his/her custodial parents but a member of the extended family or another tribal member. Sometimes, this placement may be done by mutual consent between the family members and not by action of the social services or legal system.

P.L. 95-561 - Education Amendments of 1978 (92 Stat. 3069)

Provisions within the Education Amendments of 1978 protect American Indian children's right to freedom of speech and right of religious expression. The amendments add some language and reaffirm the educational rights of American Indian students (Prevar, 1992).

Title VII - Bilingual Education Act of 1968 - Reauthorized under Improving American Schools Act of 1994

Local school districts are eligible to apply for bilingual education programs under the provisions of the Bilingual Education Act. Although the legislation was originally intended for the preservation of American Indian languages, many school districts use funds to provide instruction in a student's native language and for transitioning his or her language skills into the English language.

P.L. 100-297 - Native American Language Act of 1998

This federal legislation helps tribes preserve, promote and protect the practice and development of American Indian language. Some of the funding is directed at assisting tribes to develop bilingual education programs. P.L. 100-297 was reauthorized in 1994 as Title IX, IASA and in 2001 as Title VII No Child Left Behind (NCLB).

P.L. 101-477 - Native American Languages Act of 1992

Declaration of Policy: Section 104. It is the policy of the United States to:

- preserve, protect, and promote the rights and freedom of Native Americans to use, practice, and develop Native American languages;
- allow exceptions to teacher certification requirements for federal programs, and programs funded in whole or in part by the federal government, for instruction in Native American languages when such teacher certification requirements hinder the employment of qualified teachers who teach in Native American languages, and to encourage state and territorial governments to make similar exceptions;
- encourage and support the use of Native American languages as a medium of instruction in order to encourage and support;
  - —a Native American language survival,
  - —educational opportunity,
  - —increased student success and performance
  - —increased student awareness and knowledge of their culture and history, and
  - —increased student and community pride;
- encourage state and local educational programs to work with Native American parents, educators, Indian tribes, and other Native American governing bodies in the implementation of programs to put this policy into effect;
- recognize the right of Indian tribes and other Native American governing bodies to use the Native American languages as a medium of instruction in all schools funded by the secretary of the interior;
- fully recognize the inherent right of Indian tribes and other Native American governing bodies, states, territories, and possessions of the United States to take action on, and give official status to, their Native American languages for the purpose of conducting their own business;
- support the granting of comparable proficiency achieved through course work in a Native American language the same academic credit as comparable proficiency achieved through course work in a foreign language, with recognition of such Native American language proficiency by institutions of higher education as fulfilling foreign language entrance or degree requirements; and
- encourage all institutions of elementary, secondary, and higher education, where appropriate, to include Native American languages in the curriculum in the same manner as foreign languages and to grant proficiency in Native American languages the same full academic credit as proficiency in foreign languages.

Wisconsin Laws

Two Wisconsin state laws also deal with the education of American Indian students. The Wisconsin Indian Education Act of 1978 created provisions for the establishment and funding of native language programs in public and tribal schools, and for the licensure of native language and culture teacher and home-school coordinators.

The Wisconsin Indian Education Act is codified under Wisconsin Statutes 115.5.

As part of the state's 1989 biennial budget, the Wisconsin Legislature required all K-12 public schools to teach the history, culture, and tribal sovereignty of the federally recognized tribes and bands located in Wisconsin. That instruction also must be a part of the teacher-training program of the colleges and universities located in the state. The mandate, commonly referred to as Act 31, also calls for the study of the treaty rights of the Ojibwe Bands. Those requirements are codified in Wisconsin Statutes Chapter 118.6.

Learning from History

The number of fluent speakers in American Indian communities has dramatically declined over the past 500 years, but tribal languages have survived despite educational policies designed to wipe them out. It is critical that school staff members working with American Indian students develop an understanding of these issues.

It is especially important that those who work with students on speech- and language-related issues understand the historical processes that all but destroyed tribal languages. Without such an understanding, even a well-meaning educator can continue the process of assimilation and contribute to the extinction of another language.

Policies and practices related to American Indian education are perhaps best characterized by change. These changes, especially with regard to issues of language and culture, indicate philosophical changes in the nature of Indian education as primary control shifted from tribes, to missionaries, to the federal government, and back again.

Throughout major and minor shifts in priorities, policies, and practices, one thing remained nearly constant for generations—the focus on assimilation. Federal policymakers viewed education as the solution to the "Indian problem, and except for short-lived periods of reform, the goal of assimilation dominated Indian education" (Tippeconnic, 1991, p. 182).

To this end, missionaries, government schools, and local school districts worked to exterminate tribal languages and cultures for generations. From time to time, the government would reverse these policies, but favorable practices rarely remained in force long enough to have a meaningful impact, and in most cases, the poor quality of many of these schools meant that students were proficient in neither the tribal language nor standard English.

This section of the guide provides an overview of educational policies that have affected the languages and cultures of tribal communities. It is important to remember that many of the policies described were in effect at the same time and that the names of the eras simply characterize the dominant philosophy of the period. For example, to this day, the federal government continues to operate day schools and boarding schools both on and off reservations. Memories of these events, and of the policies that created them, continue to shape the views of education held by many American Indian children and adults.

Traditional Indian Education

Tribal societies have always had various means of preparing children to participate in their communities and to prepare them for adult roles. In the past, as now, language and culture were natural and inherent parts of tribally controlled education. Children learned survival skills as well as the values, beliefs, and practices of their people as part of their everyday lives. Learning primarily came through active partici-

pation, observation, and interaction with elders and other extended family members (Swisher, 1993).

As Vine Deloria, Jr. writes: "Culture, as Indian people understood it, was basically a lifestyle by which a people acted. It was self-expression, but not a conscious self-expression. Rather it was an expression of the essence of a people" (Swisher, 1994, p. 855).

Because language and culture were the core of the lessons, it follows that language and culture are themselves "the essence of the people." This type of instruction continues today in many communities, and it is vitally important that contemporary educational practices demonstrate respect for and understanding of that "essence."

The Boarding School Era

During the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, the federal government regularly removed American Indian children from their homes and communities and placed them in boarding schools where they were expected to learn a new culture, language, and religion. The earliest boarding schools were established in the 1870s in Virginia and Pennsylvania, although some were later founded both on and off reservations in Wisconsin. These schools held an assimilationist, English-only philosophy and were designed to accelerate the abandonment of tribal culture and the process of assimilation into the mainstream culture.

Culture shock and "full-scale deculturalization" defined the boarding school experience (Coleman, 1993). Students were placed in an unfamiliar environment, had their hair cut, had their belongings confiscated, and were given military-style uniforms to wear. They were beaten, had their mouths washed with lye soap, or were otherwise punished for speaking a tribal language. The boarding school system marks the most systematic assault on American Indian languages and cultures; and while the methodology gradually fell out of favor, the philosophy itself generally did not.

This policy was not a departure from earlier educational policies. Federal policymakers, like their colonial predecessors, viewed education as the solution to the "Indian problem," and except for short-lived periods of reform, the goal of assimilation dominated Indian education" (Tippeconnic, 1994). The actions of missionaries, government schools, and local school districts have contributed to the elimination of tribal languages and cultures for generations.

Educational policies that supported retention of tribal languages and cultures rarely remained in force long enough to have a meaningful impact, and the poor quality of many schools left students proficient in neither the tribal language nor standard English. Thus, off-reservation boarding schools are an intensification of, rather than a departure from, the assimilationist philosophy that has dominated American Indian education since the colonial era.

The typical curriculum in government schools viewed that "essence" as a deficiency. By the 1830s, government-sponsored missionary schools for American Indian people had come to emphasize what Secretary of War John C. Calhoun called "those habits of sobriety, cleanliness, economy, and industry so essential to civilized life" Calhoun explained that he hoped Indian students would "be initiated in the habits of industry, and a portion taught the mechanical arts" (Morse, 1822).

Like most schools of the time, they emphasized regular attendance, punctuality, and "proper behavior." Schooling was typically gender-segregated, either through separate schools or in separate classes. Boys typically learned farming and mechanics, while girls learned sewing, cooking, and other homemaking skills.

Native language and culture had no place in this system because it was designed to supplant them. However, some missionaries continued to provide instruction in tribal languages as a practical matter, often to the dismay of federal officials. While Oneida student at the Green Bay School were willing to learn new vocational skills, they continued to prefer the Oneida language and used it both in school and in the community. Thus, missionaries found it necessary to provide instruction, especially religious instruction, in the Oneida language.

In nearly all cases, the tribal language was simply another tool that could be used to promote religious conversion and cultural assimilation.

The assimilationist rhetoric escalated during the nineteenth century. Federal officials declared that "two-thirds of our trouble" was due to the "difference of language" and advocated for mandatory school attendance so that "their barbarous dialect should be blotted out and the English language substituted" (Szasz and Ryan, 1988, p. 29).

The explicit goal was to "demolish the Indians' communal life, to wreck tribal identity and values, and to implant a different individualist ideology." As Commissioner of Indian Affairs John D.C. Atkins stated, Indian students needed to realize "the mischief and folly" of their "barbarous practices." He sought to "remove the stumbling blocks of hereditary customs and manners, and of these language is one of the most important elements" (Reyhner, 1988, p. 80).

These ideas led to an intensification of existing practices and gave rise to the establishment of off-reservation boarding schools.

The figure most associated with the boarding schools was neither a missionary nor a teacher, but an Army officer, Captain Richard Henry Pratt. Pratt was a Civil War veteran who had served on the American frontier and developed his "educational philosophy" while in charge of a group of Kiowa, Comanche, and Cheyenne prisoners in St. Augustine, Florida.

Pratt subjected these prisoners to a regimen that combined military drill with manual training. In 1878, he began a formal regimen for American Indian students at Hampton Normal and Industrial Institute, a training school for former slaves in Hampton, Virginia.

After a year at Hampton, Pratt founded Carlisle Institute in a converted army barracks in Carlisle, Pennsylvania, with approximately 150 children whom Pratt described as "hostages for the good behavior of parents" (Szasz and Ryan, 1988, p. 290).

Carlisle's aim to "kill the Indian and save the man" illustrates Pratt's intent to dissolve tribes and physically assimilate individuals. The school followed a military model where students spent one half of the day learning reading, writing, and basic mathematics, and the other half of the day learning manual skills and performing chores.

The boys learned a trade while the girls learned to cook, clean, wash, and sew. Students also worked to defray the costs of operating the school. Pratt declared "the sooner all tribal relations are broken up; the sooner the Indian loses all his Indian ways, even his language, the better it will be" (Szasz and Ryan, 1988, p. 266).

In 1897, Pratt reported that his students were from 68 different tribes and asserted that no other institution had "so many different nationalities and languages as are gathered here, with the object of molding all into one people, speaking one tongue, and with aims and purposes in unison" (DeJong, 1993, p. 115).

To this end, students who had mastered their basic tasks participated in the "outing system" in which they lived with and worked for white farm families in order to become immersed in the larger American culture. Pratt explained that because the

"great need of the Indian is the language, intelligence, industry, and skill of the white man" they must have opportunities to associate with whites to learn those things (De Jong, 1993, p. 112).

Outing experiences were often traumatic because as one Oneida woman who had been "farmed out" to a Quaker family near Carlisle recalled, "We were treated even less than second-class citizens" (Denomie, Winter 1990-91).

Commissioner Atkins was a strong supporter of Pratt's assimilationist ideals and expanded the number of off-reservation boarding schools in operation. By 1902, 25 boarding schools served 9,736 students in 15 states, including Wisconsin. The federal government operated off-reservation schools at Tomah, Neillsville, Wittenberg, and Bayfield (Prucha, 1984).

By the late nineteenth century, federal officials began to view schools on the students' home reservations more favorably. They hoped that on-reservation boarding schools would improve attendance by addressing tribal concerns about removing students from the community, and that students at these schools would receive training to "promote civilization" among their people (Swisher, 1994).

In Wisconsin, on-reservation boarding schools included both Presbyterian and Catholic schools at Odanah, St. Joseph's Industrial Boarding School on the Menominee Reservation, and St. Mary's at Lac du Flambeau.

At these schools, the curriculum was primarily vocational, and students were required to work in the bakery and laundry, built and mended fences, and cleared pasture and croplands. The assault on language and culture was very intense in some of these schools. The missionary in charge of the Presbyterian school at Odanah declared: "If this boarding-school therefore is maintained efficiently twelve or fifteen years more, the Chippewa language will soon lose its hold upon the hearts of the people, and distinctive schools and missions to this people will no longer be necessary."

After the turn of the century, the government's educational policy shifted away from cultural annihilation in favor of a more pragmatic vocational curriculum. Even at off-reservation schools, staff members simply tended to view tribal languages and cultures as irrelevant rather than as obstacles to "civilization." The dominant view held that the purpose of schooling was to train students to live in white society and to hold a job sufficient to support themselves.

One former student of the Tomah School recalled in a 1990 interview, "Those schools taught us how to be farmers, blacksmiths, tradespeople. That was good, 'cause then you could get a job, but they never trained us to be doctors, lawyers, or business people" (Denomie, Winter 1990-91). Thus, physical assimilation, through manual training and Pratt's outing system, replaced cultural extermination as the primary focus for American Indian education.

During the late nineteenth century, the government also operated day schools, which tended to have lower levels of instruction and taught fewer skills (Reyhner and Eder, 1992). Unlike the boarding schools, government day schools were relatively poorly or irregularly attended. Missionaries also continued to operate day schools in tribal communities, including the Evangelical and Reformed Church among the Ho-Chunk in Black River Falls and the Lutheran Church among the Stockbridge-Munsee.

In the context of a number of government programs to promote assimilation, reformers known collectively as "Friends of the Indian" sought to further their goal of physical assimilation by enrolling American Indian children in public schools where increased exposure to the larger American culture might hasten assimilation (Szasz and Ryan, 1988, p. 291).

Congress provided "the authority [for] the policy of integrating Indians into the white culture, thus establishing the goal of assimilation and the public schools as the vehicle for attaining that goal" (Tippeconnic, 1991, p. 183).

The federal government began to pay tuition for American Indian students to attend public schools through contracts with individual school districts, and in 1892, 27 American Indian students enrolled in the Ashland and Round Lake school districts. Nationwide, by 1912, there were more American Indian students in public schools than in government schools. After that, boarding schools continued to operate but no longer dominated American Indian education.

The boarding school era directly and indirectly caused enormous language and cultural loss for many American Indian tribes as "entire generations lost access to native parenting models, culture, language, and traditional values" (Pewewardy, 1998, p. 29). Long stays away from home, combined with a new language and set of cultural standards, left many students further alienated from their culture and unable to relate to or understand their grandparents or other relatives when they returned home (Denomie, Winter 1990-91, p. 4).

When some former boarding school students from Wisconsin were interviewed in 1990, many talked of continuing to speak their languages in secret despite the threat of reprimand, and as adults, many became active in language revitalization efforts (Denomie, Winter 1990-91, p. 5). Generations later, many communities are still dealing with many aspects of the boarding-school experience, including ambivalence about schooling.

1960s to the Present

Current trends in American Indian education date back to the 1960s when Civil-Rights-era social and political reforms set the stage for another philosophical shift. During the 1960s, tribal governments participated in various federal self-determination programs, Indian activists successfully focused attention on tribal concerns and American Indian scholars such as Vine Deloria, Jr., were critical in education the public about important issues.

This led to a "stronger sense of cultural pride in Indianness, and, for some, heightened awareness of their local tribal cultural, linguistic and religious identity" (Swisher, 860; Nichols, 290).

During this era, American Indian people, both on reservations and in urban areas, again founded and operated their own schools. Tribal communities entered into contracts with the federal government to operate their own schools, and more than 180 tribes currently do so. In several cities, American Indian people founded their own "survival schools" explicitly designed to include tribal languages, cultures and history as a substantial part of the curriculum.

In Wisconsin, the Lac Courte Oreilles and Bad River Bands of Lake Superior Chippewa, the Oneida Nation and the Menominee tribe all operate schools either independently or under contract with the federal government. Examples of survival schools include the Heart of the Earth Survival School in Minneapolis, Red School House in St. Paul and Milwaukee's Indian Community School.

Several important studies supported control of Indian education by Indian people as a solution to the failures of the educational system. They declared that little had changed since similar studies had been conducted in the 1920s, and they denounced the policy of "coercive assimilation" as destructive to students' identities.

These studies blamed high dropout rates and low achievement levels on an educa-

tional system that did not adapt to or understand cultural differences. They found that Indian students were most successful in schools that built upon their linguistic and cultural heritage and called for culturally responsive instruction in American Indian history, culture and languages. Other recommendations included greater involvement of parents and community members and the transformation of the government school system into a regional network of schools with model programs in areas such as bilingual education (Swisher, 860, DeJong, 195 and 224).

Legislation passed since the 1960s institutionalized many of the reform efforts of the previous decade and placed control of American Indian education in the hands of Indian people. Amendments to the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 authorized culturally relevant curriculum and bilingual education programs.

The Indian Education Act of 1972 (PL 92-318) created the Office of Indian Education and authorized special funding for programs to address the "special educational and culturally related academic needs of Indian children." The Indian Self-Determination and Educational Assistance Act of 1975 (PL 93-638) allowed tribes to contract with the Bureau of Indian Affairs to provide educational services previously administered by the federal government. Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1978 (PL 95-561) emphasized local control by school boards in BIA schools (Swisher, 860, Nichols, 293).

Each of these laws returned some of the authority for Indian education to Indian communities, and many of these programs were reauthorized and remain in effect. For example, Congress has reauthorized the Indian Education Act several times, most recently as Title IX of the Improving America's Schools Act of 1994.

In Wisconsin, the Indian Education Act of 1979 included several provisions designed to promote effective instruction in American Indian languages and cultures. This law allowed for the development and implementation of language and culture education programs in both tribal and public schools, established procedures for licensing program staff and established a mechanism through which non-sectarian alternative schools could be reimbursed for program-related instructional costs.

A new organization, the American Indian Language and Culture Education Board (AILCEB), was created to oversee the program and to advise the Department of Public Instruction, the Higher Education Aids Board, the University of Wisconsin System and the Wisconsin Technical College System. The board, whose members are tribally nominated and gubernatorial appointed, operated from 1979 to 1997, when it was eliminated by the state legislature.

In 1989, the Wisconsin Legislature passed a biennial budget that included several provisions related to education about American Indians geared toward all students. This came in response to increasing controversy and violence surrounding a lack of understanding of the Ojibwe people's treaty-based, reserved rights to hunt, fish and gather within the territory ceded in the treaties of 1837 and 1842.

The new statutes require schools to provide instruction in human relations, to use instructional materials that reflect cultural diversity and to include lessons on the history, culture and tribal sovereignty of the federally recognized tribes and bands in Wisconsin at least twice in K-8 and at least once in high school.

The legislature directed the Department of Public Instruction and the American Indian Culture and Education Board to develop curriculum materials for teaching about treaty rights. To ensure that educators were knowledgeable in these areas, the legislature required all applicants for teaching licenses to have had instruction in the history, culture and tribal sovereignty of the federally recognized tribes and bands in

Wisconsin. This budget also established DPI's American Indian Studies Program to provide training and technical assistance in these areas.

Indian educators formed several important organizations during this period. At the national level, key organizations include the National Indian Education Association (NIEA), the American Indian Science and Engineering Society (AISES), the National Indian School Boards Association (NISBA) and the American Indian Higher Education Consortium (AIHEC). The formation of state and local affiliates of these and other organizations attests to the growing importance of American Indian education.

In Wisconsin, the Great Lakes Inter-Tribal Council (GLITC), a consortium of federally recognized tribes that provides services and technical assistance to tribal communities, formed an education committee in 1969. The FLITC education committee was a reservation-based, grass roots organization composed of teachers, Indian education program (Title IV and Johnson-O'Malley) staff members, Indian education parent committee members and tribal education staff.

It acted in an advisory capacity to several educational organizations and agencies around the state and oversaw special projects operated by the Higher Education Aids Board. A similar organization, the Milwaukee Indian Education Committee, also was organized. These organizations successfully worked for the passage of specific legislation for American Indian education in Wisconsin. Lack of funding led the GLITC education committee to disband in 1983 (www.wiea.org/about.html).

In 1985, a group of American Indian educators founded the Wiscnosin Indian Education Association (WIEA) and the successor to the GLITC education committee. The WIEA is a non-profit organization that exists to promote and support education and related opportunities for American Indian people in Wisconsin.

To this end, the association disseminates information through informal networks, a newsletter and a Web site (www.wiea.org); awards scholarships; holds an annual statewide conference; and provides advice and input regarding Indian education issues through position papers, representation on various committees and testimony at legislative hearings.

Nationwide, the shift in control of Indian education led to a number of changes in school curriculum and operations as parents and community members worked to implement reforms. Tribal leaders and Indian organizations have been raising concerns about the declining number of fluent speakers of tribal languages, and they point to educational practices that repress or ignore traditional tribal cultures as a major cause of this problem.

These concerns led to a new set of guidelines from the Bureau of Indian Affairs calling for acceptable of Indian cultural and religious expressions. As a result, many tribal schools (and some public schools) have begun cultural studies courses that emphasize tribal languages and culture, often through bilingual education programs. Despite these reforms, some argue that much of the old policy remains in place and that the new laws only provide for "an illusion of control" (Nichols, 293, DeJong, 230).

Supporters of bilingual education programs see recent policy changes as a way to revitalize tribal languages. Many seek to reverse the effects of assimilationist educational and social policies, while others simply look to research that indicates that bilingual education leads to higher educational attainment than English-only instruction.

The Native American Languages Act of 1990 supported these programs by declaring that it is the policy of the federal government "to preserve, protect and promote the rights and freedoms of Native Americans to use, practice and develop Native American

languages." The act encourages public schools enrolling Indian students and those run by the BIA to use tribal languages as an instructional medium (Swisher, 863).

Two important studies support educational reforms designed to promote instruction in tribal languages and cultures. In 1989, the Report of the Indian Nations at Risk Task Force, entitled *Indian Nations at Risk: An Educational Strategy for Action*, identified loss of language and culture as one of its four primary risk factors.

The report stated that well-educated tribal communities with renewed languages and cultures would experience increased self-determination and economic well-being. The task force also concluded that responsibility for Indian education was jointly held by all stakeholders including public, tribal and federal school staff members; employees of the tribal and federal governments; community members; parents; and students.

Two years later, the White House Conference on Indian Education identified ten National Education Goals for American Indians and Alaska Natives. One specifically addressed language and culture, stating: "By the year 2000, all schools will offer native students the opportunity to maintain and develop their tribal languages and will create a multicultural environment that enhances the many cultures represented in the school" (Swisher, 867).

Current laws and educational policies support efforts to maintain tribal languages and cultures. Effective implementation requires that all those involved, including speech and language pathologists, understand their role in these efforts, view them as legitimate educational practices and use instructional strategies that respect the linguistic and cultural integrity of American Indian students and their communities.

Ethical and Demographic

Recent reports detail the disproportionately high numbers of American Indian, African American, and Spanish-speaking students placed in special education programs for students with mild disabilities. Asian American, on the other hand, tend to be underrepresented in special education programs. (Harry, 1992)

Nationally, as well as in Wisconsin, concern that the diagnosis of a speech and/or language disability is applied to students who display language or cultural differences and not true disorders is growing. Studies conducted in Texas and California have shown that the special education processes continue to be problematic for second-language learners.

Historical research has found common problems and misunderstanding concerning the assessment of second-language learners. (R.A. Figueroa, S.H. Fradd, and V. I. Correa, 1989) These include:

- Language proficiency is not seriously taken into account in special education
- English language problems that are typically characteristic of second-language learners (poor comprehension, limited vocabulary, grammar and syntax errors, and problems with English articulation) are misinterpreted as disabilities
- The same few tests are used with most children
- Pre-referral modifications of the regular programs are rare and show little indications of primary language support
- The second and third grades are critical for bilingual children in terms of potentially being referred

The authors who conducted this research found that many school districts were not adequately fulfilling their legal responsibilities for assisting a child in his or her native language. They further concluded that the total process of identification, refer-

ral, and assessment is loaded against the student with limited-English proficiency. Although this research was conducted on Spanish-speaking students, similar results are emerging in literature on Asian American and American Indian students. Students who are limited-English speaking or non-English speaking obviously present a challenge to school districts and in particular the assessment teams that often include the speech and language pathologist.

Demographics provide a feeling for the scope and magnitude of what this means to school districts and educators. According to the 2000 census figures, approximately 30 percent of the U.S. population is non-white. Of these, Spanish speaking people constitute 13.9%, African American constitute 13.4%, Asian Pacific Islander's constitute 5.2% and American Indian constitute 0.9%. By 2010 it is anticipated that children of immigrants will represent 22% of the school age population. (U.S. Bureau of Census, 2000)

Obviously, the numbers and percentages of students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds in any given state or school district vary. While Wisconsin is not among the states with the highest numbers or percentages of its school-age population from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds, the challenge for the SLP who is asked to evaluate a student is nonetheless significant because

- Few practicing SLPs have the university coursework to prepare them.
- Few standardized norm-referenced speech and language tests designed specifically for students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds exist. "It is not an overstatement to say that a crisis exists in the area of assessment of non-mainstream speakers ... Diagnosticians .... need valid, reliable assessment tools." (Vaughn-Cooke, 1983)
- Few certified speech and language pathologists are fluent in a language other than English; and even fewer SLPs are members of, or completely sensitive to, cultures other than Eurocentric culture.
- Few SLPs are aware of an inherent bias against students who are from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds.
- Many SLPs lack knowledge regarding linguistic and cultural diversity.
- Certified SLPs have an ethical responsibility to conform to the American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA) recommendation that "no dialectal variety of English is a disorder or a pathological form of speech or language. ... (However,) it is indeed possible for dialect speakers to have linguistic disorders within the dialect. An essential step toward making accurate assessments of communicative disorders is to distinguish between those aspects of linguistic speech, language, and hearing disorders." (ASHA, 1983)
- SLPs have a legal responsibility to conform to Wisconsin Administrative Code PI 11, which states that "educational needs resulting primarily from poverty; neglect; delinquency; social maladjustment; cultural or linguistic isolation; or inappropriate instruction are not included under subchapter V., Chapter 115, Stats." In addition, Wisconsin Licensing Statute and PI 34.15.4(c) (2000) requires knowledge and skills in minority group relations.

Professionals who work with students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds are required to possess certain competencies. ASHA's ethical standards indicate that professionals should have knowledge and proficiency in the student's language and home culture in order to work effectively with a student who is from a linguistically or culturally diverse background. (ASHA,1998, 2001)

Many speech and language professionals are well aware of their limitations when

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it comes to proficiency in a language other than English. They are also aware of their limited knowledge of diverse cultures. Such limitations restrict services for students who are from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds. At the same time, speech and language professionals are keenly aware of their legal and ethical obligations to provide nonbiased assessment to determine if learning difficulties are due to language differences or a language disorder.

Given the challenges and limitations confronting SLPs as they prepare to deliver services to students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds, it is imperative that they consider the factors that influence language acquisition and learning.

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2

Cultural Considerations

Introduction

"All human beings are members of at least one indigenous culture, and they have the capacity to acquire knowledge of other cultures, which may either alter their indigenous cultural norms or permit them to shift from one set of cultural norms to those of some other culture" (Penalosa, 1981, as cited in Taylor, 1986).

It is the task of speech and language pathologists to try to understand students' behavior by viewing the students' behaviors from their own cultural contexts. Speech and language pathologists also must face issues confronting linguistically and culturally diverse populations and focus on learning and language issues. A student's cultural background and cultural style may influence the way the student interacts and responds in school. As a result, it may be difficult to evaluate or draw conclusions about a student's strengths and weaknesses in the absence of information about the student's cultural background.

Figure 1 outlines some cultural parameters "that represent differences between a student's cultural background and that of mainstream culture schools" (Damico and Hamayan, 1992, p. 25). These factors are not considered static, but rather on a continuum.

Culture also shapes a person's reality—a person's view of the world. Cultural knowledge and experience shape behaviors and influence expectations for and interpretations of other people's behaviors. Thus, a behavior attributed to culture often is based on knowledge of a person's own culture and comparisons with people from differing cultures. Lack of knowledge of, or insensitivity to, cultural differences often results in misperceptions, miscommunication, and cultural stereotyping. Figure 2 lists some aspects of world views that affect assessment and instruction in an educational setting (Erickson, 1993).

■ **Figure 1**

Cultural Factors that May Affect Educational Performance

(Adapted from *Multicultural Language Intervention: Addressing Cultural and Linguistic Diversity* by J.S. Damico and E.V. Hamayan. Buffalo, NY: Educom Associates, Inc., 1992.)

Educational action	Other cultures	Mainstream culture
movement	active	passive
space	close	distant
time	untimed	timed
activities	polychronic	monochronic
goal structures	cooperative	competitive
gender role	distinct	similar
role	group	individual
focus of control	external	internal
perceptual style	field dependent	field independent
cognitive style	intuitive	reflective
acculturation	contact	adaptation
language patterns	mismatch	match
language loss	extensive	minimal
code switching	frequent	infrequent
language variance	nonstandard	standard

■ **Figure 2**

The Relationship Between Culture and Communication Styles

(Reprinted with permission from Joan Erickson, "Communicative Disorders in Multicultural Populations." Wisconsin Speech Language Hearing Association Convention, May 1993.)

Areas in which culture is manifested	**Areas in which culture influences communication styles**
Family structure	Need and rules for eye contact
Important events in life cycle	Space between speakers
Roles of individual members	Gender, age, and status roles
Rules of interpersonal interactions used	Type and amount of facial expressions
Religious beliefs	Silence as a communication device
Standard for hygiene	Laughter as a communication device
Definitions of health and illness	Address forms
Food preferences	How to open and close a conversation
Dress and personal appearance	Politeness rules
History and traditions	When and how to interrupt
Holidays and celebrations	Turn taking during conversation
Education	Appropriate topics of conversation
Perceptions of work and play	Greetings and leavings
Perceptions of time and space	Humor and when to use it
Explanation of natural phenomena	Logical ordering of events during discourse
Attitudes toward pets and animals	
Artistic and musical values and tastes	
Life expectancies and aspirations	
Communication and linguistic rules	

Speech and language pathologists must be sensitive to cultural factors that may influence their view of a student's performance, but they also must be cognizant of general philosophical principles that offer a better understanding of linguistic and cultural diversity. The following philosophical principles are adapted from Orlando Taylor's discussion of "Pragmatic Considerations in Addressing Race, Ethnicity, and Cultural Diversity Within the Academy" in *Multicultural Literacy in Communication Disorders: A Manual for Teaching Cultural Diversity within the Professional Education Curriculum*.

- "Race" and "culture" are not the same. Race is a statement about one's biological attributes. Culture is a statement about one's behavior attributes in such diverse areas as values, perceptions, world views, cognitive styles, institutions, language, and so on.
- Within all races there are many cultures. Likewise, culture is not one and the same as nationality, language, or religion, although each is associated with culture. Within every culture there are many internal variations; variations typically associated with such factors as age, gender, socioeconomic status, education, religion, and very importantly, exposure to, and adoption of, other cultural norms.
- Within every culture there may exist differences in the language varieties spoken by that culture.
- There is great overlap among cultures. Both similarities and differences exist across

various cultures. An overemphasis on similarity or differences distorts reality with respect to culture and cultural diversity.

- What seems to be logical, sensible, important and reasonable to a person in one culture may seem stupid, irrational, and unimportant to an outsider.
- Feelings of apprehension, loneliness, and lack of confidence are common when encountering another culture.
- Differences between cultures are often seen as threatening and described in negative terms. This tendency must be avoided at all costs.
- Personal observations and reports of other cultures should be regarded with a great deal of skepticism. One should make up one's own mind about another culture and not rely upon reports and experiences of others.
- Stereotyping of a culture is probably inevitable in the absence of frequent contact or study. Experience, as well as study, is required to understand the many subtleties of another culture. Understanding another culture is a continuous and not a discreet process.
- The feelings people have for their own language or dialect are not often evident until they encounter another language or dialect. People often feel that their own language or dialect is far superior to other languages or dialects. Indeed, it is necessary to know the language or dialect of a culture to understand that culture in depth.

Taylor also recommends that speech and language pathologists and other educators consider how they communicate their personal views on culture. He recommends the following considerations.

- Learn the name of any given culture as assigned by its members and use that name.
- Avoid the use of generic terminology as substitutes or synonyms for more descriptive racial/ethnic terms such as "minority" to refer to African Americans, "bilingual" to refer to Spanish-speaking Americans, or "culturally diverse" or "multicultural" to avoid saying non-white.
- Avoid the use of terms that carry multiple meanings and may be offensive to members of non-white groups. The term "minority" is denigrating and suggests numerical importance.
- The use of language that suggests cultural disadvantage of a group suggests disrespect for that culture. Conversely, all European Americans should not be referred to as racist, ethnocentric, middle-class, or speakers of standard English.
- Not all European Americans are incompetent with regard to the topic of cultural diversity, nor are all non-European Americans competent on the topic.
- Be aware of words, images, and situations that suggest that all or most members of a racial or ethnic group are the same.
- Avoid using unnecessary qualifiers that reinforce racial and ethnic stereotypes. Be aware of offensive ethnic clichés such as "Chinese fire drill" and "Indian-giver."

In addition to reviewing potential cultural variables prior to working with students and families from diverse cultural backgrounds, speech and language pathologists must become familiar with working definitions of bilingualism and language proficiency. This will assist with the understanding of the relationship between language and culture for American Indian and Spanish-speaking people.

Language can only be studied and assessed as a culturally and socially embedded

phenomenon; it must be considered in context. Recognition of this relationship is basic in order to understand and preserve the complexity of language use (Crago and Cole, 1991). Jerome Bruner (1990) writes in *Acts of Meaning* that meaning itself is a culturally mediated phenomenon. Although language and culture are discussed somewhat separately in this guide, they are inextricably intertwined throughout society.

Second-Language Learning

In Wisconsin, the number of students with limited-English proficiency (LEP) continues to grow. As these students acquire proficiency in English, they become bilingual or multilingual. Bilingual describes people who are exposed to two languages and who come from homes where a language other than that of the dominant culture has been used. The term bilingual is derived from the Middle English prefix "bi" meaning "two," and the Medieval Latin word "lingua," which means "tongue." In *Language in the Process of Cultural Assimilation and Structural Incorporation of Linguistic Minorities*, Tove Skutnabb-Kangas and P. Toukomas indicate that there are three types of bilingualism.

- proficient bilingualism, or high level of proficiency in two languages
- partial bilingualism, or a native-like level of proficiency in one language (also termed "language dominance") and a low level of proficiency in another
- limited bilingualism, or a low level of proficiency in two languages.

It is also possible that an individual may prefer the use of one language over another without regard to proficiency in the preferred language.

Bilingual language acquisition proceeds either simultaneously or sequentially. In simultaneous acquisition, a student is exposed to two languages from birth. Sequential acquisition occurs when an individual is exposed to one language from birth and a second language at a later time (Cheng, 1991).

Whether a student acquires two or more languages sequentially or simultaneously, the process of acquisition is similar. An important influence on second-language acquisition is the age of the second-language learner. Stephen O. Krashen (1982) further reports that older learners learn more rapidly in the early stages of second-language acquisition, however, younger learners tend to attain higher levels of proficiency in the second language.

Additional factors that influence second-language learning and therefore affect the level of proficiency achieved include:

- linguistic factors such as phonological or word order interference of the first language upon the second
- sociolinguistic factors such as familial or peer pressure to learn the second language
- cultural factors such as perception of the second language
- psychosocial influences including the "silent" period, self-confidence, motivation, anxiety, and school or work adjustments
- educational factors including the educational level of parents and their view of education, as well as previous educational history
- immigration and family factors such as date of arrival, reason for immigration, and life in other countries

There are many misconceptions regarding students learning a second language, including:

- difficulties learning a second language are attributable to lack of effort and / or interest.
- simultaneous exposure to two languages interferes with acquisition of either language. Merino notes that a first language's interference with second-language learning is minimal, that it occurs mostly during the early stages of acquisition, and that it is limited mostly to phonological differences (Merino, p. 59).
- immersion in all-English programs is the method of choice for students who are illiterate upon entrance to school and bilingual programs ought to be temporary. The intent is to phase-out instruction in the student's first language.

There are reports that Spanish-speaking students from low-income families who have weak language skills tend to develop marginal language skills in the second language once they enter an all-English educational system (Nicoladis and Genesee, 1997). Gutierrez-McClellen finds that these students are most likely to perform below expected grade level in comparison to students who do not speak Spanish (p. 207).

Researchers often debate the issue of language proficiency (Langdon and Merino, p. 133). Cheng defines communicative competence, a comparative term of language proficiency, as " the ability to use the linguistic and social convention of a particular language and culture in which the communication occurs" (Merino, p. 91).

Several studies have focused on students' general communicative competence and their performance on standardized achievement tests. It was found that students' pragmatic language skills were more representative of their true language ability than their performance on formal language measures. Across studies, when language testing is used in isolation, it does not provide an accurate picture of a student's language performance.

Language proficiency levels are also determined by attitudes towards the second language and its speakers (Nicoladis and Genesee, p. 259). Regardless of language proficiency levels, "learning new language skills can be a challenging task for bilingual children if there is any conflict between social and cultural values associated with their two languages" (Nicoladis and Genesee, p. 258).

Social language skills are typically learned first. There are three phases of social-language learning in the acquisition of a second language. In phase one, the non-native speaker addresses speakers of the dominant language in his or her native language. This may last from two to three days, or even longer for children. Eventually it is realized that communication cannot occur in two mutually exclusive languages. A silent period, during which the speaker abruptly ceases verbal interactions with the speaker of the dominant language, may ensue. During this phase, attention is focused on listening and comprehension, with interactions usually being non-verbal.

Phase two is marked by the reinitiation of verbal interactions with speakers of the second language. Utterances contain one or two words, usually nouns or verbs. Other phrases are memorized routines, idioms, or repetitions of other people. This period may last from one to more than 24 weeks.

Phase three is characterized by a shift from repetition to actual production of simple sentences, however, early utterances are typically ungrammatical in form. The later part of this phase is identified by spontaneous dialogue and composition. Vocabulary and syntactic skills develop.

Although these three early phases of second-language acquisition are identifiable, it is apparent that "proficiency" in a second language must entail additional skill.

Language proficiency refers to a person's ability to use language effectively in vari-

ous contexts and to meet the language demands of the situation. D. Hymes states in his discussion of ethnography (1982) that language proficiency refers to knowing how to "say the right thing, in the right way, to the right people in the right place."

James Cummins (1981, 1984) proposes a mode of language proficiency that considers communication embedded in the contexts in which it occurs. In his model, language proficiency is achieved on a situational continuum from context-embedded (face-to-face, social communication) to context-reduced (academic) situational demands.

The context-embedded type of language proficiency is often referred to as Basic Interpersonal Communication Skill (BICS). This is the kind of proficiency required for social communication where much of the information is embedded in the context of the situation. BICS proficiency is the kind of skill demonstrated by students on the playground as they chat in informal situations. Cummins explains that this everyday communication is informal, and students learn and may rely on contextual clues.

On the other end of the continuum is Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). This proficiency is usually demanded of students in an academic situation where less information is derived from the context (thus, context-reduced). CALP requires that students derive their understanding exclusively from the language used to convey the message. Situational clues are limited or absent.

Language Disorders among Second-Language Learners

Barbara Merino (1992) points out that the majority of the research conducted on the Spanish language has been conducted in the last two decades (p. 68). It is difficult to differentiate between language disorder and language acquisition patterns normally used by second-language learners. However, Spanish-speaking students with a learning disorder may exhibit certain characteristics when learning a second language, such as difficulty learning a new vocabulary and generalizing bound morphemes to familiar and unfamiliar words (Restrepo, p. 1,400).

In general, researchers agree that type and extent of exposure to a second language affect the learning process. For instance, a Spanish-speaking student who has difficulty learning gender and number inflections (for example, *la nina, las ninas)* may have received increased exposure to English, consequently, he or she may have learned, and adopted, the English system. Students who have been exposed to Spanish and English languages often combine the languages, thus creating terms such as "trocka" for truck, or "parca" for park.

Gonzales notes the lack of research on the Spanish language and is particularly concerned about the implications for assessment of language disorders among Spanish-speaking people. The challenge for speech/language pathologists lies in determining whether those students who have been referred for suspected special education needs in language exhibit a language difference typical of second-language acquisition patterns or whether they, in fact, exhibit a language disorder. Nicoladis and Genesee (1997) write that to make an accurate distinction, it is essential that SLPs understand the normal variations of bilingual acquisition and how it differs from monolingual development (p. 258).

Given the limited availability of this research, Merino stresses the need to be cautious when screening Spanish-speaking students for language disorders. Parents often are well aware when their students are having communication difficulties (Kayser, 1993, p. 143) and can often serve as valuable sources of information during the screening and/or evaluation processes.

During the assessment process when distinguishing between a language disorder and a language difference, the speech and language pathologist must use a variety of tools in order to make this determination. This could include discrete point tests, criterion reference tests, observation, interview, and language sample. In addition, the structural components of the student's first language must be determined (Anderson, 1998) and then compared to the student's stage of language development (Paul, 2001). Anderson (1998) stresses the importance of considering the "Spanish variant used by the community as well as the amount of contact that exists with English". Ultimately, the intent is to "match the communication demands of a school setting with the language skills the child brings to school" (Merino, 1992).

The Role of Primary Language and Culture in Academic Achievement of Students from Linguistically and Culturally Diverse Backgrounds

During the past 50 years, social scientists have offered many definitions of culture. Some see culture primarily as a person's ethnicity; however, culture is increasingly viewed much more broadly, including personal experiences, beliefs, conditions, and even one's socio-economic status. This broader view of culture includes all the influences a person might list that makes him or her unique. Another way to view culture is as nothing less than the unique lens through which each of us view the world, and in turn are viewed by others (Danesi and Perron, 1999; Kibler, 1998; Nieto, 1992).

Given this more comprehensive definition of culture, it is easy to see that culture affects student learning. However, such a broad definition defies the sincere but overly simplistic desire some educators have to "tell me everything I need to know to teach this child effectively." Often, this desire results in brief handouts on different ethnic groups that may, in fact, foster more ethnic stereotyping than true understanding of students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds.

Certainly it is positive to seek out information about the backgrounds of students and their families, and the cultures they come from. But educators must apply such knowledge with the same sense of cultural complexity and skepticism they would treat information that describes Americans.

Educators working with students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds should exercise caution when interpreting sights and sounds and should provide students with opportunities to explain their thinking and to understand the educator. Also, educators should not underestimate the capacity of culture to influence both classroom behavior and performance.

Respect and flexibility are key concepts to keep in mind. Jim Cummins (1986) states that "widespread school failure does not occur in minority groups that are positively oriented toward both their own and the dominant culture" (p. 22). Cummins and others suggest that teachers who value students' cultures and encourage students to see themselves as "bilingual and bicultural" are more successful in educating students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds than teachers who, either overtly or more subtly, send the message that the dominant culture is the one that counts and the student's culture may simply "be in the way of learning."

Gloria Ladson-Billings (1994), in her book *Dream Keepers: Successful Teachers of African American Students,* presents the concept of instruction that is "culturally relevant." She provides examples, using classroom-based vignettes, of what it means to teach in ways that are culturally relevant to students. These teachers not only respect

their students' cultures, but they also see themselves as a part of the communities and cultures of the classroom. Such teachers creatively incorporate their students' perspectives into learning while also maintaining high standards for achievement for all students in the class. In these classrooms, teachers encourage supportive and collaborative social relationships and knowledge is viewed critically.

Most educational researchers agree that language and culture are closely intertwined, and thus it is important for educators to send students a positive message about the value of their home language and the desirability of using it or even becoming literate in. Otherwise, as Cummins maintains, students are likely to feel disempowered and misunderstood within the culture of the school.

While discussion about using students' native languages in schools will most likely continue for years to come, even when bilingual programs are not possible, there is value in respecting and acknowledging the languages and cultures students bring to school. Many researchers still believe a firm foundation in the primary language is the best insurance for long-term success as English-language learners move toward the more difficult, abstract academic work of middle and high schools.

At the very least, schools without bilingual programs should send a clear message home to parents to maintain the home language and consider it as an asset, not a liability. Sending students and their families a clear message that their backgrounds, cultures, and languages are intrinsically valuable costs schools very little and will likely lead to a smoother transition for English language learners adjusting to American schools and instruction in English.

The Role of Culture in Student Behavior

Students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds are more likely to be disciplined than white students. During the 1997-98 school year, for example, Wisconsin school districts suspended 20.66 percent of all African American students, 15.67 percent of American Indian students, 12.37 percent of Spanish-speaking students, 4.85 percent of white students, and 3.30 percent of Asian students. During the same time period, Wisconsin school districts expelled 0.40 percent of all African American students, 0.27 percent of all American Indian students, 0.25 percent of Spanish-speaking students, 0.11 percent of white students, and 0.06 percent of Asian students.

While research has not identified the reasons behind the racial disparity in disciplinary actions, the data raise a series of questions that policy makers, educators, communities, and families should address: *Are the classroom codes of conduct fair to all students, regardless of race/ethnicity? Do the classrooms meet the needs of diverse student learners? Do school staff members apply consistently the codes of conduct to students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds? Were diverse community representatives involved in drafting the classroom codes of conduct? How are white female authority figures viewed by different groups of students (white female students, African American students, Spanish-speaking female students, and so forth)?*

Male students are more likely to be disciplined than female students. During the 1997-98 school year, for example, about 70 percent of students suspended were male, and 75.5 percent of the students expelled were male. While research suggests a variety of reasons behind the gender differential in disciplinary actions (female students can meet the disciplinary systems of female authority figures better than male students can, girls and young women receive cultural messages that it is not appropriate for girls to misbehave in school, and so forth), the data again raise a series of questions that educators should address: *Can our classes be structured differently to better en-*

gage male students in general, and Spanish-speaking males in particular? How can our classroom codes of conduct reflect the different cultural messages received by boys and girls from diverse backgrounds?

In addition to reviewing potential cultural variables before working with students and families from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds, speech and language pathologists must become familiar working definitions of bilingualism and language proficiency. This helps them understand the relationship between language and culture for people who are either American Indian or Spanish speaking.

Language can only be studied and assessed as a culturally and socially embedded phenomenon; it must be considered in context. Recognizing this relationship is basic in order to understand and preserve the complexity of language use (Crago and Cole, 1991). Jerome Bruner (1990) writes in *Acts of Meaning* that meaning itself is a culturally mediated phenomenon. Although language and culture are discussed somewhat separately in this guide, they are inextricably intertwined throughout society.

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Online:

The Center for Applied Linguistics: www.cal.org

The National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education: www.ncbe.gwu.edu

3

Assessment

Introduction

The assessment of speech and language skills is particularly difficult when the IEP team must determine if a student's communication difficulty results from a communication disability, a social dialect, learning English as a second language, or a combination of these. Based on research findings and clinical experiences, language development as a discipline has changed and assessment practices have shifted to reflect these changes.

In the 1950s, speech and language pathologists focused on vocabulary and articulation. In the 1960s, the focus moved to syntax; and in the 1970s the attention shifted to semantics and phonology. The study of pragmatics in the 1980s laid the groundwork for an emphasis on discourse (Westby and Erickson, 1992). Thus, it is only recently that language theories considered the "whole," functional use of language, rather than its discrete aspects.

Current theories about language suggest that it is more than a sum of its components. Mastery of phonology, syntax, morphology, and semantics does not necessarily mean that a student can integrate all of these parts into meaningful communication, or pragmatic usage, in multiple environments. Oral and written language is viewed as integrated parts of normal language development, which are also independent skills. A more current view of language development is to focus on how the individual functions as a communicator, in various communication situations.

Aside from the change in how language development is viewed, educators have also seen a change in the demographics of students in public schools. There has been a significant increase in students from non-English speaking and various cultural backgrounds. Educators are recognizing and celebrating student diversity and looking for ways to include these students in traditional education settings.

Speech and language pathologists have responded to the changes in demographics and view of language disorders vs. differences. They have changed their assessment strategies from standardized testing and other quantitative methods that measure the discrete units of language; semantics, syntax, or phonology to more integrative and qualitative methods that provide a rich description of the student's communicative competencies (see Figure 3). Cultural and social factors that support or inhibit a student's performance on literacy tasks are considered part of the diagnostic picture and add to interpretation of the descriptions gathered. These changes in assessment strategies positively contribute to the task of distinguishing language differences from language disorders.

As part of the assessment of a student from a linguistically and culturally diverse background his or her English Language Proficiency Level must be determined by either an English-as-a-Second Language teacher or a speech-language pathologist (ASHA, 1998). Appendix A describes these levels. In most cases in Wisconsin, the ESL/bilingual teacher determines the language level of the student using one of four "approved" standardized measures. This policy/procedure was put into effect with the 2002-03 school year.

Students who are learning English as a second language acquire different types of language skills at different time intervals. They are described as follows:

- Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) involves the language skills necessary to function in everyday interpersonal context such as, greetings, maintaining a conversation, taking turns, and so forth. This language is minimally related to academic achievement. This everyday communication is informal and children may rely

on contextual cues. BICS proficiency is generally developed after two years' exposure to the second language (Cummins, 1984).

- Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) is required in academic situations where less information is derived from the context. CALP requires children derive their understanding exclusively from the language used to convey the message. Situational cues are limited or absent. This is the language necessary for success in academic subjects and is related to the specific context of the subject area. Even under ideal conditions, CALP proficiency may take five to seven years (or more) to achieve proficiency for cognitive and academic language demands (Cummins, 1984).

Students need to acquire proficiencies along the BICS-CALP continuum to succeed academically. It is therefore necessary to determine where on the continuum the student is performing during the assessment process. Generally, these students should have their English proficiency levels updated yearly.

C. Roseberry-McKibbin and A. Brice (2000) report that students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds may develop conversational English that appears fluent and adequate for everyday communication yet have difficulty in areas such as reading, writing, spelling, and other subject areas where there is little context to support the languages being heard or read. This BICS-CALP gap may lead professionals to falsely assume that the students have language-learning disabilities.

Finally, SLPs should become familiar with the phonological and linguistic system of the student's primary or dominant language. In situations where the student is using a different phonological system or has a linguistically diverse dialect, it would not be appropriate to apply the sound development norms of an English-based phonological system.

Why are Standardized Tests Discriminatory?

- Most tests are normed on a majority population (Anglo) that speaks Standard American English dialect. Few standardized tests have been designed for students who speak non-mainstream English dialects.
- Even when tests have included minorities in the standardization sample, the numbers have tended to be small and not representative of the whole population. Averaging the responses of a small number or a small percentage of students who are linguistically and culturally diverse in the larger sample group obscures whatever differences may exist.
- Test content generally reflects middle-class Euro-American experiences. Using tests with students who do not closely match the description of the standardization sample and whose culture does not reflect typical Euro-American experiences can result in cultural bias. For example, an illustration used to elicit a response in a test might depict situations that are not within the realm of experiences of minority students. Items on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test-3 (PPVT-3) include tractor, forest, bark, reel, vine, and balcony. Items on the Expressive One Word Picture Vocabulary Test-Revised (EOWPVT-R) include suitcase, tractor, helicopter, and anchor. Educators must consider that the experiential background of some students may not include such concepts or vocabulary. "Most standardized tests are culturally biased for any group whose sociocultural background differs from that of the group whom the norms were established" (Erickson and Omark, 1981, p.126).
- Questionable use in identifying disorders in students whose primary mode of communication differs from Standard English. The linguistic content of the test may not

be appropriate for students who have not been exposed to the contents of the test.

- Most standardized tests reflect a discrete-point approach to language assessment. They measure discrete aspects of language such as vocabulary, grammar, syntax, and phonology. Discrete-point tests are more affected by linguistic or cultural differences than are other assessment strategies, such as tests that examine a student's functional communication ability.
- Some educators tend to overrate the value of standardized test scores. This tendency results in the increased likelihood of misuse in the evaluation of students from linguistically or culturally diverse backgrounds.
- The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA '97) mandates that a student be assessed in his or her 'native' language. The law defines 'native language' as "the language normally used by the individual ... in their home or learning environment" (Federal Regulations 300.19).

There are few standardized tests available in languages other than Spanish. When considering the use of any assessment, the assessment selected should measure the extent to which a student has a disability and needs special education and not be a measure of the student's English language skills. Appendix B, Recommended Tests for Speech and Language Evaluation: Spanish Emphasis, focuses on valuable standardized tests given in Spanish.

Students who are unfamiliar with the "testing framework" or "testing situation" used in standardized tests may be at a disadvantage. The situation itself may be threatening or foreign to cognitive styles of students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds. Test results are therefore questionable. If possible, the student should have a 'practice session,' using either a parallel test form or test with similar activities.

How to Reduce Bias in Assessments and Standardized Tests

Using standardized tests with students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds has many drawbacks. Some critics have suggested alternatives to standardized tests, but not all authors are in agreement. Frequently mentioned alternatives and their limitations are listed below. Some possible solutions are also listed. However, none of the solutions proposed solves all the problems associated with bias in testing. The evaluator conducting the assessment must make decisions about the type of information the assessment provides and whether the assessment provides valid information on the existence of a speech and language disability. The following alternatives should be considered.

- Develop new tests appropriate to the students' linguistic and cultural background. This ensures that the test content will be relevant. An example is the Wausau School District Hmong Language Screen (2002), which took the district nearly four years from development to implementation. This is an appropriate tool for these students' linguistic and cultural background. A drawback to this approach is that test development was time-consuming and costly. It may not be possible to construct specific tests for each cultural group in a community, without a sufficient sample of students to study and provide a normative representation.
- Modify existing tests so they reflect the language usage that is more culturally valid for the region. An English word example of what is culturally valid is the word

"soda." In some areas of the country, it is more culturally appropriate to use the word "pop." Modifying a test in this way may result in an instrument that is more valid (it measures what is intended). However, when the content is changed it is not appropriate to apply the norms developed for the test. While it is not possible to use the norms developed for this test specifically, administration of a modified test gives the examiner some information about the student's language skills.

- If a new test is developed or an existing test is modified, a school district may elect to collect results and develop local norms for these tests by administering these tests to a representative sample drawn from the local school district. The resulting norms will be appropriate to the particular population as in the Wausau (Wis.) School District Hmong Language Screen (2002).
- It also may be possible for an interpreter to translate and administer an existing (English) formal test into the primary language of the student being evaluated. When a test is translated, the conditions under which the test was standardized are not the same, and it is not appropriate to make educational placement decisions solely based on those test scores. Educators also should discuss the purpose of the test with the interpreter as described in Appendix C (Translators and Interpreters).
- Some speech and language professionals and other educators refrain from using any standardized tests when evaluating students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds. While this method can provide a valid and reliable description of a student's communication skills, it does not provide a means of comparison of the student to any other similar and normally developing students from that student's linguistic/cultural background. This solution also dramatizes the crisis that exists with respect to the use of standardized tests; however, it does not offer a viable alternative for professionals who must complete evaluations and need valid and reliable assessment tools that will contribute to a non-discriminatory assessment.

Despite these limitations, IEP teams evaluating students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds may use standardized tests with caution. However, unless the test is administered in the identical manner in which the norms were developed, standardized scores should not be reported. Instead, there should be a description of the student's performance in relation to the skills the test measures. In addition, educators should use observation, interviews, language samples, and other assessment strategies to assist in identifying communication delays and disorders. The sole use of standardized tests may result in discrimination or misidentification of students who are thought to have speech and language disorders.

Educators at the University of Texas at Austin have developed materials and a training program for use with linguistically-culturally-diverse special education students. C.V. Wilkinson (University of Texas at Austin, 1996) compiled seven considerations for reducing the bias in the assessment of language minority students.

- The purpose of the assessment should focus on changing the instructional program to maximize the student's learning experience and not simply identify a problem.
- The individuals conducting the assessment should have knowledge of second-language acquisition in general and the specific culture of the student.
- The individual conducting the assessment should become familiar with the phonological system of the student's native language as well as any dialectical variations within the phonological system. (Chapter 5 describes the phonological system for Spanish.)

- Only trained interpreters should be used in the assessment process. Be aware of the limitations of the individual conducting the translation (i.e. educational training, relationship to student).
- Consider the language Proficiency—both BICS and CALP—of the student and the language demands of the classroom.
- Identify family attitudes and skills related to literacy and learning.
- Recognize and consider the limitations of translations and other test modifications and accommodations.

Test Selection

Based on a careful reading of the examiner's manual, a review of the test format, and an examination of individual test items, the speech and language pathologist must select appropriate tests.

Appendixes D, E and F provide formats for reviewing tests and their content. The Test Evaluation Form (Appendix D) is a useful guide when reviewing the test manual for the appropriateness of a test for a specific student. The Checklist for Determination of Potential Discrimination of an Assessment Instrument (Appendix E) and the Evaluation of Discrete-Point Test Form (Appendix F) also are helpful in evaluating test content and its relevance to the assessment situation.

Reviewing published tests in such a manner is a time-consuming endeavor but will result in heightened awareness of the potential discriminatory impact of a specific test. Evaluators should select tests based on the greatest number of quality items found in which common features occur in both standard English and the student's primary language.

Test Administration

Evaluators should administer standardized tests according to the directions in the manual while at the same time remain sensitive to the student's culture, interaction style, and reaction to the testing situation. Otherwise, the student may have difficulty feeling comfortable with the testing situation. However, if the directions or test administration is varied in any way, the results will be invalid. Simple modifications such as allowing additional time, frequent breaks, and clarification of test instructions generally do not invalidate test results.

Evaluators also must consider the student's experience with the testing situation. They should not assume that the student can respond in the manner required by the test, and testing should not begin until the student understands the task expectations.

The evaluator should allow the student to practice on the types of items and activities included in the test to ensure that the student understands the instructions and the kinds of responses expected. The evaluator also should demonstrate the type of response expected and should provide examples of the types of responses that will receive maximum credit. Because it is inappropriate to use actual or similar test items for practice, the evaluator will need to develop these activities if sufficient sample or practice items are not included in the test manual.. When an educator spends time preparing the student for the types of tasks on the test, the probability of valid test results will increase.

If translations of test instructions or activities are necessary, an interpreter should give the instructions for the test. The interpreter must understand the rationale, procedures, and information desired. The translation need not be literal, unless required by the test administration but it should include idiomatic expressions of the intent of

the test or activity. A person from the same ethnic group is often the est individual to use for translation purposes. as the student should give the translation. The evaluator should not attempt to administer the test or speak while the interpreter translates; this can confuse the student.

Test Interpretation

Evaluators must be sensitive to the limitations of tests and use caution when interpreting test results to identify a student from a linguistically and culturally diverse background as having a language impairment. If standardized tests are used, the SLP must carefully interpret the results.

Test scores should not be used as the sole basis for identification of a language disorder

Speech and language pathologists should never base eligibility decisions solely on a test score or results of a single instrument. The revised speech and language eligibility criteria are found in Wisconsin Administrative Code PI 11.36(5) and are described in the technical guide *Speech and Language Impairments: Assessment and Decision Making (2001).* The eligibility criteria for speech or language impairment require the use of formal measures, informal measures, information about the student's communication in natural environments, and information about a student's alternative communication mode in the determination of a speech and language impairment. IDEA '97 requires that an evaluation to identify a student with a disability involve a variety of assessment tools and strategies that provide relevant information as to the functional and developmental skills of the student.

These state and federal requirements also pertain to the assessment of students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds. Scores on formalized tests may result from various factors that are not related to a disability. The speech and language pathologist must consider factors contributing to the student's performance. Errors that are not typical of other students with similar linguistic and cultural backgrounds may be evidence of a speech and language disability. *Standardized test results must always be compared with information from informal measures, observations, and information from other individuals in the student's environment.*

Use test results in conjunction with information obtained from samples of language used in natural settings

Standardized tests may provide information about possible problems that can be substantiated in natural communication. Further assessment through language sampling or other descriptive assessment strategies can corroborate test results and help the speech and language pathologist determine if there is a problem in the student's functional use of language. "A child should be considered to have a communicative disorder only if evidence of a deficit is found during conversational speech" (Mattes and Omark, 1991).

The extent to which test performance is influenced by cultural and environmental factors unique to the individual being assessed needs to be explored

Two students from the same cultural background may differ in terms of values, customs, and beliefs related to their culture. Each student is unique, and therefore,

must be viewed as such in the interpretation of test data. Reviewing test results with the student's parents and/or guardians can provide information about cultural and environmental factors that may have affected performance. Using multiple informants further reduces possible bias due to culture.

Gloria Toliver-Weddinton and Joan Erickson (1982) and D. Battle (2002) provide the following suggestions for using standardized tests with students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds. Speech and language pathologists should implement these strategies with caution, tailoring them to the specific student and to the reasons for completing the assessment using standardized testing measures.

- Select a test that has the most valid items for the skills to be assessed.
- Examine the directions for the test and each of the test items in order to determine whether the minority student to be assessed has had access to the information.
- Develop a list of alternative directions and responses to items before administering the test that will not affect the test's validity.
- Administer the test as recommended in the examiner's manual first. Because the directions are not usually a test item, reword immediately if indicated. (Note: translations of directions into the student's primary language and practice responding to the type of tasks and providing the type of responses included in the test are also recommended by some authors). **Any change of directions makes the evaluation instrument invalid for the purpose of reporting age scores, standard deviations, and so forth.**
- The examiner may need to make the following procedural accommodations and modifications to obtain a more accurate description of the student's communication:
  - –provide additional time for the student to respond
  - –continue the test even though a basal is not established
  - –continue the test beyond the ceiling
  - –ask the student to name the picture or point to actual objects for items missed on a task that uses pictures for assessing comprehension
  - –encourage the student to explain choices that are incorrect according to the scoring guidelines
- Record all the student's responses. When a student changes an answer, give him or her credit, especially when the student demonstrates that he or she knows the correct answer.
- Compare the student's responses with the ones considered to be correct on the test. For responses that are the same or similar, mark them correct.
- For those items that are incorrect according to the test manual, compare the student's answers with reported features of the student's native language or dialect and comment in your narrative report.
- When reporting test results indicate that adjustments have been made. The evaluator should describe the items that were modified, what was done to modify test procedures, and the differences in the student's responses after the modification. A student with a communication disorder will achieve low scores no matter how the test is accommodated or modified.

Alternative Assessment Strategies

An alternative assessment process may be the most valid manner in which to evaluate a second-language learner. In this process, standards for students with similar backgrounds are established and the person conducting the evaluation compares the

student being evaluated with these standards. This process is similar to the process for developing local norms for local populations. In this process, specific tasks or activities the examiner expects the learner to be able to complete are identified. Then, the examiner attempts to collect evidence or information that demonstrates the student performance on the tasks. The person conducting the evaluation may gather this information in a number of ways: direct observation, checklists completed by another individual, interviews with adults in the learners environment, examples of classroom work, and so forth. The results provide a description of skills the learner has and needs to develop, rather than a score on a test. The results often provide a portfolio product and may be evaluated in a similar manner (Wyatt, 1998).

Other examples of alternative assessments include:

- **Use criterion-referenced tasks** when assessing the language of students from linguistically and culturally diverse background. Orlando Taylor and K.T. Payne (1994) recommend this nonstandardized approach as an alternative to the inappropriate use of standardized tests. Criterion-referenced measures offer no scientific developmental sequence data, but can provide a description of classroom or academic skills or a student. Although the data collected through criterion-referenced assessment is not intended to be compared with various student performances, it does provide a link between instructional goals and evaluation. Grade-level expectations in regular education, may be compared to report cards, and performance in state and district assessments reflect the student's ability to meet educational expectations for all students in a school district.

- **Use language sample analysis (LSA)** when assessing the language of students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds. A language sample is a collection of spontaneous utterances taken for the purpose of examining the student's language proficiency in a spontaneous and functional conversation context. It allows for a comparison between formal test results and informal assessment procedures and how both serve as an indication of how the student functions as a communicator. Spontaneous language production allows the student to demonstrate the true range of the student's language abilities as he or she communicates a variety of messages in either his or her primary or secondary language or dialect (Miller, 1992).

  A language sample can be used to document growth and development of language proficiency and can be helpful in corroborating or refuting standardized test results. Language sample analysis is also useful in establishing intervention strategies that are functional and will have immediate results in improving the student's communicative competency. Methods of language sampling are described in detail in *Language Sampling Analysis: The Wisconsin Guide* published by the Department of Public Instruction in 1992. Language sample analysis of typically developing Spanish-speaking 9-year-old students is discussed in Appendix F.

- **Use other descriptive assessment strategies** in conjunction with standardized assessment tools E.V. Hamayan and J.S. Damico (1991) state that language and communication "should be treated as dynamic, synergistic, and integrative with both intrinsic cognitive factors and extrinsic contextual features." Incorporating such a view of communication into assessment practices can help limit the bias inherent in the assessment of students from linguistically and culturally diverse backgrounds and assist in differentiating language disorders from language differences. This becomes increasingly important as U.S. demographics change. Descriptive or qualitative assessment strategies differ significantly from quantitative or discrete-point assessment

■ **Figure 3**

Characteristics of Qualitative and Quantitative Assessment Strategies

Qualitative Strategy

- Study of real-world situations as they occur naturally
- Inside-direct contact and personal experiences and insights are important parts of the inquiry and critical to understanding
- Focus on the whole individual and cultural values
- Attention to process; reality viewed as a dynamic, changing system
- Each case is viewed as special and unique
- Evaluator includes personal experience and empathetic insight as relevant data

Quantitative Strategy

- Study of behavior in experimentally controlled situations
- Outsider; applies statistical analysis to objective data
- Focus on isolated variables and cause-effect relationships
- Attention to product; reality viewed as unchanging facts
- Subjects viewed collectively as a group with special characteristics
- Evaluator uses objective tests

■ **Figure 4**

Possible Sources of Information and Their Purpose

(Adapted from *Assessing Asian Language Performance: Guidelines for Evaluating Limited English-Proficient Students* by L.L. Cheng. Oceanside, CA: Academic Communication Associates, 1991.)

Informant	**Function**
Older sibling	Provide language model and comment on the child's language use
Parents	Comment on the child's language at home and in comparison to that of siblings
Monolingual or monodialectical peers	Comment on interaction
Monolingual or monodialectical teachers	Comment on the overall behavior, academic skills, learning style, learning rate, attention
Bilingual upper grade schoolmate or upper grade schoolmate using the same dialect	Comment on native language fluency or fluency using the dialect and provide articulation and language model
Bilingual teacher or assistant; teacher or assistant from the same cultural background	Comment on language acquisition and competency from the viewpoint of the culture; may conduct assessment or remediation
Linguist	Comment on features of native language or alternative dialect
English as a Second Language teacher	Comment on acquisition of English compared to other children of the same cultural and language background
Foreign students	Comment on the native language of the student
Bilingual psychologist	Provide psychological profile

strategies in several important ways. The characteristics of both qualitative and quantitative assessment methods based on the work of C. Westby (1992) are contrasted in Figure 3.

Ethnography as a Descriptive Assessment Tool

Ethnography is a qualitative method of investigation. It is a systematic, scientific process for understanding behaviors by studying them in multiple contexts. It is the "process of interpreting culture (ethno-), in writing (-graphy) from the native point of view" (Kovarsky, 1992). An ethnographic approach to assessment provides more detailed descriptions of behavior. As a result, there is an increased chance that the data represent the student's typical skills.

Data interpretation is less biased and more valid because it is interpreted through the worldview of the student's culture. Finally, intervention goals have a better chance of generalizing to the real world because data collection is based upon the environments in which the student is expected to communicate.

Whenever there is reliance on multiple informants and interactants in data collection, possible bias in the assessment of students is reduced. Figure 4 lists kinds of information a diagnostician might gather using multiple sources of information.

Hortencia Kayser (1995), L.M. Cleary and T. Peacock (1998), and L.L. Cheng (1991, 2000) recommend several activities in conducting ethnographic assessment:

- Critically examine your own world values, views, beliefs, way of life, communicative style, learning style, cognitive style, and personal biases.
- Describe the student's communication breakdown based on information from multiple sources.
- Interview members of the student's family and work with them to collect data regarding the student and the home environment.
- Consult with the classroom teachers, ESL teachers and educational assistants.
- Employ procedures designed to describe the student's linguistic behavior in natural settings.
- Summarize observations and identify patterns of communication, taking care to validate observations by comparing information from multiple perspectives.

The evaluator may be unaware of his or her own bias and preconceptions that affect interpretation of the behaviors and interactions observed. Also, it is possible that diagnostic staff members may not have had training in the use of descriptive assessment strategies. This shows the importance of collecting information from a variety of sources in various communicative situations.

Distinguishing Language Differences from Language Disorders

The evaluation report developed during the IEP process requires documentation of previous interventions by a school's student assessment team and their effects on the student's ability to participate and make progress in the general education curriculum. This includes any accommodation or modification in the classroom that enable the student to experience success in the instructional environment.

Any member of the educational staff interacting with the student (bilingual teacher, English as a Second Language teacher, classroom teacher, and so forth) may implement these accommodations and modifications. Thus, it is important to involve every

staff member who has contact with the student in the information-gathering and problem-solving activities. This collaborative approach may be sufficient to ensure learning success without requiring a referral to the IEP team for a special education evaluation.

The process may include a variety of strategies tailored to the individual student, based on learning style, interests, age, language proficiency, and so forth. Figure 5 suggests this collaborative approach begin with identifying the concerns of parents and staff members. As these concerns are described, information about the student's cultural, social, experiential, and linguistic background is also gathered.

It is important to recognize that while culture influences the manner in which a person perceives, organizes, processes, and uses information, there will be some variation in these perceptions within members of the same cultural group. Such differences may be seen in family values, beliefs systems, and so forth. It is important to have information on the cultural group as well as the individual. Assumptions about the student based on race or cultural background may lead to invalid results.

Information gathered about a student is compared and contrasted to the cultural, social, and linguistic environments in which the student is expected to function. A careful analysis can help identify inherent similarities and differences. At the same time, information about the student's learning style, motivation, interests, and strengths and weaknesses can be gathered and compared to the teacher's instructional style, curriculum content, and demands of the learning environment.

As this information is compared and contrasted, similarities and differences may be identified. An important consideration is the match between a student's learning style and a teacher's teaching style. Many learners have difficulty acquiring academic or other skills because of a poor match between learning and teaching styles and not as a result of a language or learning disability.

When information from all sources is combined, the team may develop additional strategies to provide success for the student. Appendixes G through O provide various tools to assist in this process. All forms found in the Appendix may be duplicated and customized as necessary for specific environments or staff members. The process uses the strategies of observation, record review, interview, and collaboration. The following diagram should be used to assist educators to determine if the student is experiencing academic difficulties because of a language disorder or disability.

Referral for a Special Education Evaluation

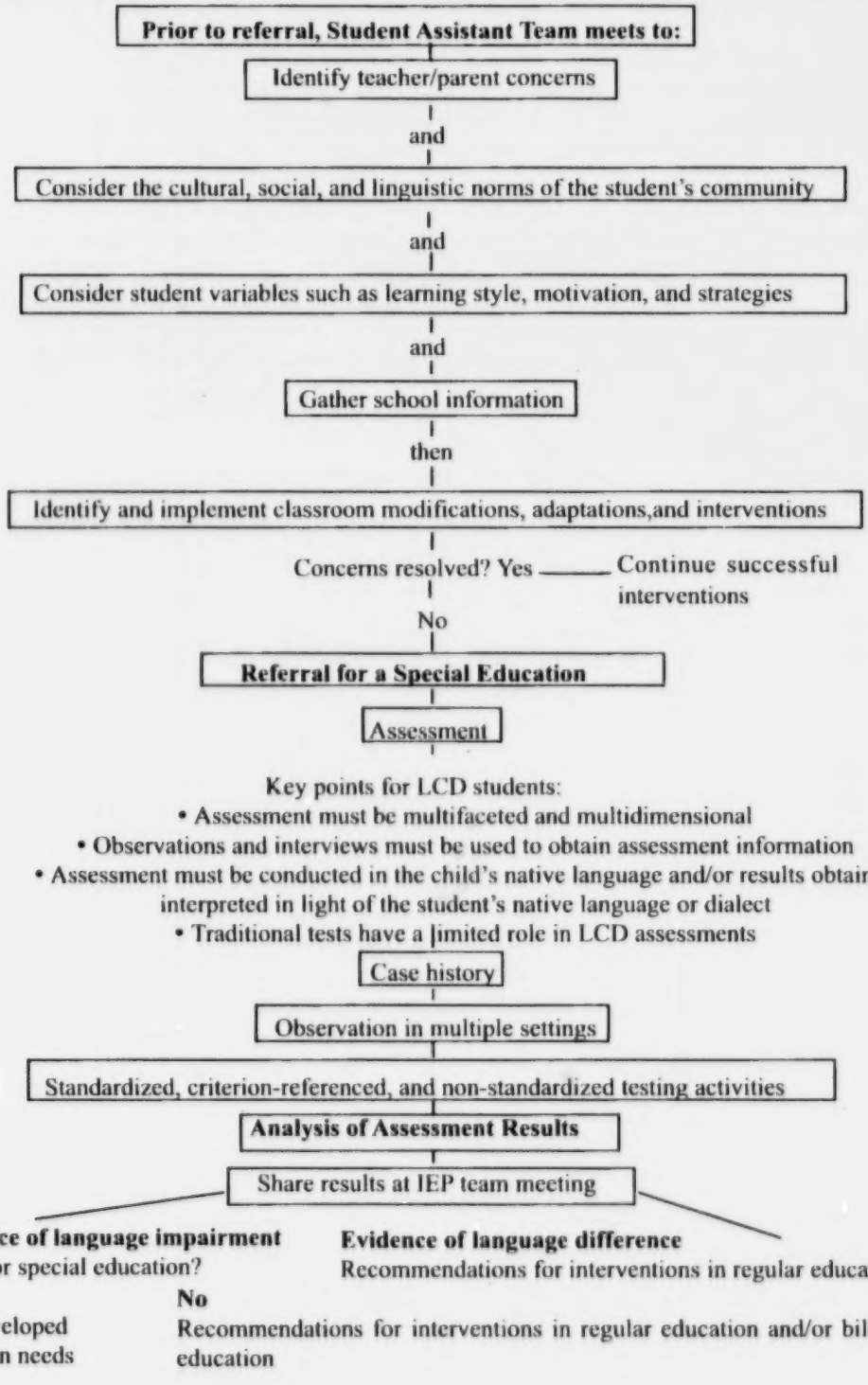
If the modifications and adaptations identified in the building or teacher assistance team described in the previous section are not successful in resolving educational concerns, a referral for a special education evaluation involving the IEP team may be initiated. If at any point during the collaborative process, the building or teacher assistance team suspects the student to have a disability, a referral to the IEP team should be initiated.

Once the referral for an evaluation has been made, the IEP team will review the existing information and determine if additional testing is necessary. The information gathered prior to referral is noted on the referral form and also assists the IEP team in the assessment process.

Once the referral has been made, the parent is notified. This notice and all other notifications in the IEP process must be in the parent's native language or translated so the parent understands. The IEP team, which includes the parent, will make the

Figure 5

A Model of Assessment to Assist in Distinguishing Language Differences from Language Disorders


Prior to referral, Student Assistant Team meets to:
Identify teacher/parent concerns
and
Consider the cultural, social, and linguistic norms of the student's community
and
Consider student variables such as learning style, motivation, and strategies
and
Gather school information
then
Identify and implement classroom modifications, adaptations,and interventions
Concerns resolved? Yes
Continue successful interventions
No
Referral for a Special Education
Assessment
Key points for LCD students:
• Assessment must be multifaceted and multidimensional
• Observations and interviews must be used to obtain assessment information
• Assessment must be conducted in the child's native language and/or results obtained interpreted in light of the student's native language or dialect
• Traditional tests have a limited role in LCD assessments
Case history
Observation in multiple settings
Standardized, criterion-referenced, and non-standardized testing activities
Analysis of Assessment Results
Share results at IEP team meeting
Evidence of language impairment
Need for special education?
Yes
IEP developed based on needs
Evidence of language difference
Recommendations for interventions in regular education
No
Recommendations for interventions in regular education and/or bilingual education

decision regarding the need for additional testing. If additional testing is necessary, the parent must give consent. The parent must understand what they are consenting to, so they are able to give *informed* consent as specified in the law.

If the IEP team determines the student is a child with an impairment and requires special education services, the IEP team will develop an individualized education program. This program is based on the needs of the student and not on the label of disability. The IEP team will also determine the place the student will receive the special education and related services. On an initial evaluation, a parent must give written consent before any services are delivered.

In summary, to differentiate between a language difference and disorder, an IEP team approach to a comprehensive assessment should be descriptive in nature and include:

- Thorough case history including vision, hearing, and other potential physical/medical issues. It assesses exposure, opportunities for conceptual development, literacy and developmental issues in the first (L1) and second (L2) language.
- Dynamic, ongoing assessment of student's language-learning ability.
- Formal assessment, if appropriate.
- Informal assessment in naturalistic contexts in both first (L1) and second (L2) language. This can include checklists, interviews, criterion-referenced testing, language sampling, and observations.
- Naturalistic environmental observations carried out by various team members in the classroom, home, and other settings.
- Proficiency testing in both first (L1) (if possible) and second (L2) language. Both BICS and CALP should be assessed on an annual basis.
- Become familiar with the phonological (sound) and linguistic system of the student's primary or dominant language so educated decisions can be made concerning a language difference or a language disorder.

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4

American Indians in Wisconsin

Defining the American Indian

When American Indian people gather together or meet each for the first time usually the first questions asked are: "Where are you from?" "Who is your family?" "Where do you live?" Among Indian people these questions ultimately define who the individual is and their individual tribal identity. Personal and tribal identity is an important part of every American Indian person's life. Who they are, who their family is and where they come from gives them their personal identification and standing among other Indian people.

Recorded history has shown that Indian people have inhabited the Western Hemisphere since time immemorial. But they have not been given their due respect when it comes to enjoying all the benefits of American society.

The first misnomer thrust upon them is the label mistakenly identifying them as "Indian." When Columbus reached what became the Americas it is estimated that 10 million people inhabited what is now North America. Columbus, in his journals, used the term "Indios" in his description of the people he encountered in the Caribbean islands on his voyages in his search for a trading route to Asia. Later the term was expanded to Indian.

What do we Want to be Called?

Lingering debate has taken place in the tribal and non-tribal community over what the indigenous peoples of America want to be called. Two major terms have been used to identify the native people: "American Indian" and "Native American." In this era of political correctness and the renewal of Indian awareness, terminology has become an issue. Neither term has been without controversy, past or present.

The most commonly used term to identify people in the tribal community is the term "American Indian" (Caldwell, Jackson, 2001).

Many tribal organizations, such as the National Congress of American Indians (NCAI), National Indian Education Association (NIEA), National Advisory Council on Indian Education (NACIE), American Indian Movement (AIM) and Wisconsin Indian Education Association (WIEA), use the term "Indian" in their title. Many tribal people feel the term Native American causes confusion when referring to the indigenous people of the Americas.

In some federal legislation, the use of the term Native American has opened doors to other racial and ethnic groups such as native Hawaiians who lay claim to being "native American" and have used the term to gain access to programs and services intended for American Indians through treaty rights.

Diversity among tribes and nations with more than 560 tribal groups in the United States is a root cause for the continuing debate. Even among tribal peoples the name of a particular tribal community raises the issue of the appropriate name designation. Each tribe has its own means of identification and each determines who individual members are.

Identifying who is an American Indian is a complex and difficult question to answer. Volumes have been and can be written in attempts to answer the question. An examination of United States governmental agencies that provide services to American Indians find 37 different definitions of American Indian in their various departmental regulations. Even within the same agency, different offices have different definitions. There is no one universal definition. The United States government has 237 laws that specifically mention or set apart American Indians. Even the Constitution of

the United States makes specific reference to the American Indian in Article 8, which deals with commerce between nations.

In the past 25 years renaissance in tribal communities across the United States has seen a number of tribal communities and its citizens returning to the use of their original tribal names. An example in Wisconsin is the Winnebago Tribe, which in the 1990s formally changed its name to Ho-Chunk—the word in its language for identification. Another example is the Navajo which now is the Dine, and the people formerly called the Sioux have returned to use of the terms Lakota, Dakota or Nakota.

As more and more tribal nations across the United States gain more control over their own affairs many are returning to the utilization of original names in their own language for purposes of identification.

In discussion with many tribal people on the issue of what they want to be called the preference is to be called by their individual tribal designation—Menominee, Ojibwe, Stockbridge-Munsee/Mohican, Potawatomi, Oneida, Ho-Chunk, Dine, Lakota, etc. (Caldwell, Jackson, 2001).

Some people misidentify tribal groups. For example, members of the Oneida Nation and other members of their confederacy are sometimes referred to as being Iroquois. The term itself, Iroquois, is not the name of a tribe, but the identifier for the tribes (Oneida, Mohawk, Seneca, Cayuga and Onondaga) that make up their confederacy—the Iroquois Confederacy.

All the indigenous nations have their own names for identifying themselves. Many of their tribal-designated names in their native language translate into a variation of the words "the people." Over time many of these names have changed because of the use of other languages that has changed the pronunciation of the name.

The Menominee or Omaeqnomenewekowak, for example, are the oldest continuous inhabitants to reside in what is now the state of Wisconsin. The name translates into the "wild rice gathers," which describes the activity other tribes such as the Ojibwe or Anishinabe observed the Menominee doing when they gathered the wild rice that grew in abundance in the lakes and streams of northeastern Wisconsin. The word Anishinabe translates into the phrase "the original people," which many Ojibwe people use in their conversations when referring to themselves. The Potawatomi or Bodewatomi are part of an alliance formed with the Ojibwe and Ottawa and were given the name identifying them as the youngest brother in the alliance responsible for being the "Keeper of the Fire."

The Oneida or On^yote?a ka, known as "people of the standing stone," is a nation that emigrated from the state of New York to Wisconsin in 1820. It is one of the five nations of the Iroquoaian Confederacy.

One problem with attempting to make the connection to a person's tribal affiliation is separating the individuals from more than 560 tribal groups. Unless an Indian person is asked "Who are you? What is your tribe? Where do you live?" the person asking the question obviously doesn't know the tribal identity of the person being asked. A word of caution, not all people from a tribal community know their individual tribal history, language and culture or tribal affiliation. Do not pressure them if they appear uncomfortable and avoid answering the questions.

The following section describes how a person becomes a member of a particular tribal community.

Tribal Blood Quantum and Enrollment

American Indians are unique in that they are the only people of the United States

legally defined by law. When American Indian tribes entered into treaty negotiations with the federal and state governments, a system to track tribal membership was developed. This system is called tribal enrollment. The government based the system on the individual person's blood quantum, which is a numerical system using a fractionated designation.

At the time of the treaty signing, the tribe was asked to furnish the government with a record of its members who are entitled to the provisions of the treaty. Because many treaties are held in perpetuity, the government and tribe needed a way to keep a record of the descendants and future generations that would be entitled to the provisions contained in each treaty.

Blood quantum is based on a fractionalized system based on the mathematical number 1 or four-fourths. Each tribal member who is descended from American Indian parents inherits one-half of the blood quanta of each parent from the previous generation.

For the purpose of illustration, if the parents are full-blood Menominee, the children of those parents are also full bloods. Each child inherits one-half of his/her parents' four-fourths, or two-fourths from the male parent and two-fourths from the female parent, which equals four-fourths. Each child of these parents is a full-blood Menominee tribal member.

Through marriages between different tribes and non-Indians, identifying who is an Indian becomes more complex. For example, if one parent is four-fourths Menominee and the other parent is four-fourths Ojibwe, the child inherits one-half of each parent's blood quantum—two-fourths Menominee and two-fourths Ojibwe. The child is on the membership roll as one-half Menominee and one-half Ojibwe.

When a child is of mixed tribal parentage the parents must choose one tribal membership for the purpose of receiving treaty benefits. A tribal member cannot be enrolled in two tribes for the purpose of receiving treaty rights' benefits.

Another example is a parent who is one-half Ho-Chunk, one-quarter Menominee and one-quarter French and the other parent is one-half Menominee, one-quarter French and one-quarter Mohican. The child inheriting one-half each has a blood quantum of one-quarter Ho-Chunk, three-eighths Menominee, one-quarter French and one-eighth Mohican.

Each succeeding generation continues to inherit one-half of the parent's blood quantum.

Defining the American Indian has always been a source of consternation. In 1878, the U.S. Congress in the court case Elk versus Wilkins declared that American Indians were human beings and had a "soul" as defined in the Christian way. In 1924, the American Indian Citizenship Act granted American Indians citizenship for their volunteerism in World War I when more than 14,000 American Indians volunteered for military service.

Despite the long history of who is an American Indian, many tribes continue their efforts toward preserving of their culture, history, traditions and language. Many tribes and Indian families instill in their children the pride and self-esteem of being a member of their particular tribe. As tribes develop their communities through gaming and other economic-development efforts they are recovering their languages and traditions.

Where do we Live?

Indian families and their children may reside either on the reservation or off-reservation. Reservations are lands designated as homelands for tribes either by treaty or

agreements with the federal or state government.

Approximately 70 percent of the American Indian population in Wisconsin resides in towns and villages off the reservation or in larger urban areas such as Milwaukee, Green Bay, Madison or Superior. Some of these families maintain ties to their tribal communities. Others may have no connection with their tribe and have little knowledge of their tribal affiliation. Also, through federal employment and training relocation programs, some members of other American Indian tribes across the United States and Canada reside in Wisconsin.

The U.S. Census Bureau counted 2.6 million American Indians in the preliminary 2000 census. Wisconsin's American Indian population is approximately 46,000. The largest population in Wisconsin is in the metropolitan Milwaukee area, where approximately 45 percent of the state's American Indian population lives. Of the remaining 55 percent, approximately 50 percent live on a reservation and the other 50 percent live in off-reservation communities. Most American Indian families that reside off reservation reside within 20 to 30 miles of their tribal community.

The Milwaukee Public School system has the largest American Indian student population followed by the Menominee Indian School District located on the Menominee Indian Reservation. Other school districts with sizable American Indian student populations include Hayward, Ashland, Lac du Flambeau, Black River Falls, Green Bay, Madison, Superior, Shawano and Bowler. Approximately 92 percent of American Indian students in Wisconsin enrolled in grades K-12 attend public schools.

Educators who work with Indian students must be aware that not all children know their tribal affiliation. They should use caution when asking a student about his/her tribal heritage. How the question is asked or the context in which it is asked may cause embarrassment for the student who might not have been taught or know anything about his/her family's tribal history, language or culture.

Be aware that some families may geographically live away from their tribal community, but they are very much connected to and are actively involved in their tribal customs, language and traditions. Educators should not pressure students to reveal what they know. They will do such when they feel they are ready and have had time to analyze their situation and feel comfortable in presenting that information.

The federal government and many tribes require that to recognized as a member of a particular tribe each individual must have a least one-quarter blood degree of a recognized tribe or band. Some tribes set their blood quantum higher or lower than the federal government standard.

For some tribes, membership may also be defined by the individual's knowledge of their tribal culture, history, family relationships, traditions and language.

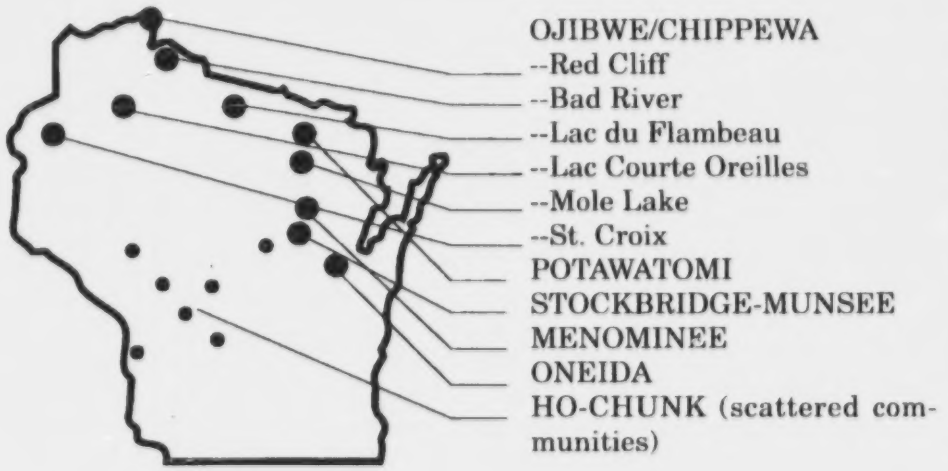
Tribal members may be categorized based upon their tribe's relationship with the federal government. There are more than 550 federally recognized tribes in the United States. Federally recognized tribes are those tribes that have been living in the United States for more than 10,000 years, have entered into treaties or agreements with the United States and have established a federal-tribal trust relationship.

Non-federally recognized tribes are those tribes who have been living in America for at least 10,000 years or more but are not recognized by the federal government. These tribes did not enter into treaty negotiations with the federal government during the treaty era or they were not in the right location when the federal government was enrolling tribes.

The federally recognized tribes in Wisconsin are Menominee, Ojibwe (six bands), Potawatomi, Ho-Chunk, Stockbridge-Munsee and Oneida. The Brothertown is a non-

federally recognized tribe that is in the process of seeking federal recognition. In the early 1800s, the federal government moved the Oneida and Stockbridge-Munsee Band of the Mohican tribes from New York and Massachusetts to Wisconsin as part of their treaty negotiations with the federal government. Figure 6 locates the American Indian tribes in Wisconsin.

■ **Figure 6**
American Indian Tribes in Wisconsin



American Indian Culture

In Wisconsin there are, as in most other states with American Indian populations, several different American Indian cultures and linguistic groupings. Although there are similarities as there are with all other cultures, there may be major differences. In the last 100 years, many changes to American Indian cultures have occurred and many still are changing.

Educators should remember that all people are individuals, and variances in the amount of education, attitude toward education, work ethic, level of literacy, religious beliefs, family relationships, knowledge of native language and culture and other sociocultural differences may affect a person's behavior. For example, carrying sacred cultural objects or materials of a religious nature often violates public school rules, which can confuse students. For example, a school may allow a student to possess a rosary or holy water but not an eagle claw or tobacco. Chapter 2 provides an in-depth discussion of general cultural considerations.

Educators with questions should contact tribal elders or experienced educators familiar with that particular culture. Many schools with numerous American Indian students have home-school coordinators, Title IX counselors, Johnson O'Malley counselors or other American Indian staff members who may be helpful. If appropriate, members of a student's Individual Educational Program (IEP) team may be contacted.

Many other schools are located away from these population bases so they do not have these staff members available. Educators may not be familiar with each culture,

and they may find it necessary to consult someone within the tribe. Appendix XX lists contact people for the American Indian tribes in Wisconsin. Many American Indian people are experts on other tribes' cultures. For example, A Ho-Chunk home-school coordinator may not be familiar with the culture of an Oneida student.

Tribal Clans

Most American Indian tribes have a clan system, which serves as a social and political organizational system. Members of each clan possess specific qualities and traits attributable to membership in their specific clan group. Members are traditionally raised to develop these qualities in their progeny; this gives them identity as well as roles and responsibilities to fulfill as part of the tribe.

The Ojibwe and Potawatomi people are very similar. Each has several different clans, and each has a function to fulfill as a part of the tribe as a whole. The primary clans are the crane, bear, marten, turtle and fish with many variations as to different birds (loon, eagle, hawk, crow, raven); large four-leggeds (moose, caribou); small four-leggeds (beaver, otter, muskrat, woodchuck); amphibians (snake, frog); and fish (bullhead, sturgeon, sucker, pike). The birds are known as speakers and leaders. The large four-leggeds are known as police and medicine carriers. The small four-leggeds are known as warriors/protectors and helpers. The amphibians are known as keepers of the old ways. The fish are known as intellectuals/teachers and keepers of the legends. Ojibwe/Potawatomi society is patrilineal so clan membership is passed down through the father.

The Menominee clans are: Bear, who are the speakers and keepers of the law; Eagle for freedom and justice; Crane for architecture, construction and art; Wolf for hunting and gathering; and Moose for community or individual security. Menominee clanship is patrilineal so it is passed down through the father.

The Oneida clans are: Bear, which is responsible for carrying the knowledge and respect for medicines; Wolf, which is revered for sense of family; and Turtle, which represents the earth and all the gifts the earth provides to people. Oneida clanship is matrilineal so it is passed down through the mother.

The Ho-Chunk clans are: Bear, which is responsible for police and disciplinary functions relating to the village and hunt and for carrying out orders delegated from the Thunderbird Clan. Buffalo functions as public crier and intermediary between the chief and his people, and Deer deal with environmental issues and the weather, also possessed minor political/social functions. Eagle supplies soldiers for warfare and for minor political/social functions; and Elk is connected with the care of the fire and fireplaces throughout the village and when on the hunt or warpath. Elk also possess minor political functions. Fish supplies soldiers for warfare, environmental issues and minor political/social functions. Snake supplies soldiers for warfare, environmental issues and minor political/social functions. Thunder, also known as the chief clan, supplies civil leaders for the office of chief, for the functions of preserving peace and as an intermediary. Warrior takes care of all functions relating to war and has the responsibility to decree life or death decisions over captives taken in war. Water Spirit are connected with passage of streams, rivers, water and so forth; handle water issues in sacred ceremonies; possess minor political/social functions. Wolf are regarded as minor soldiers, perform roles regarding public health and safety issues, monitor the quality of water used by people and animals and perform minor political/social functions.

Individual Names

Native American people may have several names – the English or given name (for example, Tom Johnson), an ancestor's name that has been translated and passed down (for example, Tom Blackbird) or a name that is not translated (for example, Tom Makadebinesi, which is Ojibwe). Most people will also have a spiritual or Indian name. This name was given in a ceremony by an elder or medicine person based on a dream or other spiritual revelation and is to be used in ceremonies/prayers and when entering the next world. People generally do not use this name commonly and may choose not to tell it to a stranger. Many people also have a nickname by which they are commonly known (for example, Buck, Bearman, Hawk, Fish) or a derivation of their given name.

American Indian Languages in Wisconsin

There is no single native language that all American Indian people speak. In Wisconsin there are at least three basic language stocks considered linguistically separate. Of the 11 federally recognized bands and tribes in Wisconsin, the six Ojibwe (Chippewa) bands, Potawatomi, Menominee and Stockbridge-Munsee Mohican speak Algonkian languages, the Oneidas speak an Iroquoian language and the Ho-Chunk speak a Siouan language. Until recently most of these languages were strictly oral, there has been very little literature or other resources written in these languages.

Most tribes in Wisconsin and throughout the United States are involved in language preservation efforts to preserve and revive their native languages. Tribal people believe that the native language provides necessary cultural identity, self-esteem, self-image and balance.

Tribal peoples have traditionally been bicultural/bilingual as citizens of their tribes and of the United States. For instance, Wisconsin Ojibwe-language speakers have written materials in phonetic and the Fiero Double Vowel system which were developed in the 1970s. Some Christian-oriented materials may be as much as 150 years old. Both use standard roman symbols with a few special symbols to indicate glottal stops and nasalized syllables.

Word order is generally the opposite of English, object-verb-subject. Rather than gender-based on sex, gender is based on whether a substantive is considered animate or inanimate.

Ojibwe is very much a language of verbs; it has been listed in the Guinness Book of World Records for having so many verb forms. The entire language is based on a great reverence for the natural world as all living things are considered on an even level with people, people are not considered superior. This type of worldview as well as the view of English being backward has caused misunderstandings as Ojibwe and mainstream worldview are often diametrically opposed. The other native languages of the state are similar in this way.

Even students who are not fluent native language speakers come from communities where elders and other leaders still profess ancient beliefs, rites and rituals in daily life. In many communities, the students are taught to speak or understand native language at home or in preschool language preservation programs. By the time they enter public school they may have had several years of bilingual/bicultural learning and many public school teachers are unaware of this.

Different forms of nonverbal communication may demonstrate cultural differences. American Indian people also may speak softer or slower, exhibit delayed responses, avoid eye contact with the speaker or listener and interject less than other students.

All Wisconsin tribes presently use the Roman Alphabet symbols to represent written sounds in their languages, use unique sound systems and use dialectal variations for their native language. The following is a description of language characteristics from each of Wisconsin's American Indian tribes.

Ojibwe

Sound System using Fiero Double Vowel Writing System and as developed at Wisconsin Native American Language Project (WNALP) at UW-Milwaukee

Single vowels are pronounced as follows:
"a" as in mud or blood,
"e" as in gray or hay,
"i" as in hit or pit,
"o" as in joke or poke.

Double vowels are pronounced as follows:
"aa" as in father or hot,
"ii" as in sheet or meet,
"oo" as in too or shoe.

Consonants are pronounced the same as in English.

Alphabet

- Single Consonants: b d g h (indicates nazalization) j k m n p s t w y z
- Double Consonants: ch sh zh nd ng nj sk mb (ns nz nh indicate nazalization) bw gw kw mw nw sw
- Consonant Clusters: shk sht shkw nsh nzh ngw
- Single Vowels: a e i o
- Double Vowels: aa ii oo
- Vowel Clusters With Glottal Stop: a'a a'e a'i a'ii a'o a'oo e'a e'aa e'e e'i e'ii e'o e'oo i'a i'aa i'e i'i i'o i'oo o'a o'aa o'e o'i o'ii o'o o'oo oo'oo

Dialectical Variations

There are no "r's" or "l's" in the Ojibwe language so many students who have heard and speak the native language at home often have trouble pronouncing these when they speak English. This could result in referrals for speech therapy.

Questions are of two types, the simplest is a marker pronounced na or ina. For instance take the simple sentence "you are going to town" - odenaang gid izhaa which if translated literally would mean "to town you are going there". To change this to a question you simply add 'na' or 'ina'- "odenaang gid izhaa na". This question marker is also often used in spoken English. "you going to town ina". The other type of question involves an interrogatory term such as who, what, where, why, when etc., this type requires use of the conjunct form of the verb. For instance "when are you going to town" - aanapii odenaang ezhaayan.

These common verbs may sometimes be anglicized to produce a confusing sentence e.g. "when ezhaayan town?" or "when you gonna maazhaan to town?". Young people are often unaware that this code switching is happening as it is quite acceptable in the home community.

Menominee

Sound System using Project system from Wisconsin Native American Language Project at UW-Milwaukee OMAEQNOMENEW-EQNQESEW (He or she speaks Menominee)

Usual pronunciation of the Menominee vowels.

Six Long Vowels:
"a" Like the a in father or hot.
"e" Like ai in wait.
"i" Like the ee in see.
"o" Like the o in joke or poke.
"u" Like the oo in soon.

Six short vowels:
"a" Like the u in but.
"o" Like the u in put
"e" Like the i in bit.
"i" Like the i in bit (But shorter).
"ae" Like a in cat (But shorter).
"u" Like the oo in soon. (But shorter)

Consonants are pronounced as follows:
"c" Stands for the sound of ch as in church,
"q" Stands for the sound of a slight catch in the throat, indicates a glottal stop. (This is a must in speaking an Indian language such as Menominee)
All other consonant sounds the same as in English.

Alphabet
Single Consonants - p t c k h q (glottal stop) m n s w y
Single Vowels - a a e e i i o o u u
Double Vowels - ae ae

The Menominee Language is very interesting and fun to learn. For example, the word the Menominee people used to describe the first time they ever saw a White Man who was from France. They looked out over the water and saw a raft at a distance on the waves. When the people of the Menominee Nation were telling others of what they had seen they used a descriptive term Waemaehtekosew for Frenchman, translated as follows: waeh- (preverb) at a distance, maehnos- raft, tekow-wave, awew-it is such and such , He or She is so-and-so.

Linguists working with the Menominee elders have preserved Menominee recording what each has said. Translations are not word for word as you would expect with other language. The translations are called free English translations and variants of some words are understood by most speakers of the language.

Potawatomi

Sound System using Project system from Wisconsin Native American Language Project at UW-Milwaukee known as Onabi'igan

Single vowels are pronounced as follows:
"a" as in father,
"e" as in met,
"e" as in hat,
"i" as in seen,
"o" as in joke.

Consonants are pronounced the same as English.

Alphabet-Potawatomi

Single consonants- b d g h (indicates nasalization) j k m n p s t w y z
Consonant clusters- shk sht shkw nsh nzh ngw
Single Vowels - a e e i o

Oneida

Sound System using current Oneida spelling system.

Six single vowels are identified:
"a" as in father
"e" as in egg or eight
"i" as in ski or machine
"o" as in hope or low
"u" as in the "un" in tune (nasalized)
"^ " as in the "on" in son (nasalized)

Consonants "t", "k" and "s" each have two pronunciations depending on the other sounds near them.
"t" normally has the sound of the "t" in city or water,
if a "k", "h", or "s" follows then the "t" has the usual English sound as in top.
"k" normally has a g-like sound as in skill,
but if a "t", "s", or "h" follows, it sounds like the "k" in kill.
"s" often has a sound halfway between the "s" in sea and the "z"sound of the "s" in was. When it comes between two vowels it always has the "z" like sound and when it comes before or after "h", then it has the sound of the "s" in sea.
Special consonant sounds and other symbols include:
"?" indicates a glottal stop,
"/" above a vowel indicates the stressed syllable in a word,
" " after a vowel indicates that the vowel is lengthened or dragged out,
"_" underlined sounds are whispered and not said aloud.
Other consonants are pronounced the same as English.

Alphabet
Single Consonants - h k l n s t w y
Single Vowels - a e i o u ^

Dialectical Variations
Oneida Linguistic Influences on English

Language differences that influence English
- Omission of copula
- Verb stems-simple and complex
- Pronoun prefixes subject, objective, and transitive
- Noun roots have prefix or suffix attached
- Particles correspond to English adverbs or conjunctions
- Suffixes affect where the accent goes and that affects vowel length
- Uses a noun that is formally constructed as a verb

Articulation differences that influence English
- Whispered endings
- Letters 't', 'k',& 's' are pronounced differently depending on what sound is next
- Special clusters for 'j', 'ch', & 'sh'
- Intonation patterns revolve around vowels for different meanings
- Nasalized vowels 'u' & ^
- Uses 14 letters/symbols

Ukwehuwehnéha? Kʌ yé
Oneida Salve

Tsi? kʌs ni ná kyele? ukwehuwehnéha?
How always I I did Oneida

K ʌ yé wa?ku ní ; ʌhslíhahte? yohsa?kʌ́slale?
Salve I made it you will boil wormwood

Kwah kʌ?náhe? ʌtyolíhʌ? tho ne? o nʌ́ ʌsneki yóste?
For a while it will boil and then you'll purify it

Okhna? kʌ yé tʌ́syeste? ʌhslíhahte? tsi? niyo lé
And salve you will mix you will boil until

ʌwásteske kwah nok kʌ yé ʌtsyota tʌ́hle
it is dry only salve will remain

Né né kanuhkwa?tsli yó tá t yakohu?kwanú waks
It is good medicine if one has a sore throat

Khale? lométis.
And rheumatism

Oneida Salve
Told by Elizabeth Huff to Dennison Hill

This is how I always used to make Oneida salve. Cook some wormwood for a while; it will boil and then purify the liquid and mix the salve; cook it until it goes dry and only the salve remains. This is good medicine for sore throats and rheumatism.

Ho-Chunk

Sound System using the IPA writing system from WNALP
Five vowels are identified:
"a" like the a in English word father
"e" like the e in English word break
"i" like the i in English word machine
"o" like the o in the English word wrote
"u" like the u in the English word tune
special hook marks are used for nasalized vowels a i u

The following consonants are the same as in English: b g h j k m n p s y z

There are seven letters that do not correspond to English letters:

- s sounds like "sh" in shoe and fish
- z sounds like the "s" in measure and treasure
- c sounds like the "ch" in church
- x has no English equivalent. A voiceless sound of friction is created by raising the back of the tongue up toward the back of the roof of the mouth as the air-

stream is forced through that point. Example words; xguxguise - pig, wagax - paper, xe - hill.

- g has no English equivalent. It is created in the same manner as the above except that it is voiced. Example words; kagi - raven, gak - cry, horuguc - look, see.
- t usually sounds like the English letter d, except when followed by the glottal stop ('), then it sounds like the English letter t.
- r is a tongue trill, something like the tt in English: "Betty wants better butter.".
- ' is the glottal stop. A slight catch in the throat. For example, hapte'e - today, hi'u - use, k'i - carry on back, s'ak - old.

Alphabet

Single Consonants - b c g g j k m n p r s s t w x y z z'
Single Vowels - a a e i i o u u

Cultural Considerations for Teachers of American Indian Students

There are many cultural differences between the mainstream and American Indian cultures. There are also differences between tribes and differences within tribes.

This section presents differences that are known to exist between mainstream culture and the culture of American Indian communities. It includes tribal customs and beliefs, attitudes concerning school and American Indian learning styles.

In *Collective Wisdom* (1998), Cleary and Peacock caution educators to be mindful of stereotypes and generalities. Educators must work to understand why American schooling may be difficult for American Indian students. They must work to make school relevant to student's lives, and they must learn about the culture that is deeper than the surface culture of food, dress and custom.

Some mainstream teachers may have their earliest views of American Indians as stereotyped images from movies or cartoons. Non-Indians must consider the experiences or observations that formed their initial views of American Indians. They also should consider how those views have changed and what influenced those changes.

Differences in Beliefs

Teachers who are unaware of tribal customs may find themselves alienated from American Indian parents or the American Indian community. Teachers should remember that American Indians will appreciate any effort to learn about a particular community's culture.

Belief systems vary from tribe to tribe, however, striving for harmony and balance in life appears central to many American Indians. As Cleary and Peacock (1998) state, "harmony and balance is the American Indian belief in interrelatedness and connectedness with all that is natural. It recognizes the need for individual wellness—of the interdependence of physical, emotional, psychological and spiritual well-being."

As educators, it is important to recognize the concept of harmony and balance as it relates to American Indian students in school. For many American Indian students, discord between the ways of school and the ways of home and community represents an imbalance. The belief system reflects the American Indian student who understands "that all things have spirit and that all things must be treated with respect and dignity." Students may not always know why they feel uncomfortable, resistant or even

rebellious. They may have been raised in a traditional setting and may not be able to articulate what is wrong when they experience disharmony.

Subtle cultural differences in *ways of being* also exist. This means that there are different perceptions, values, worldviews and ways of expression and interaction. Eye contact is an example that many mainstream teachers demand and require of their students to confirm attention to task. The speaker/teacher may interpret a student's lack of eye contact as impolite and inattentive. It is the opposite with most American Indian people. This is a cultural difference in the way people show they are paying attention and giving respect. Paying attention and other body-language differences are not necessarily the same across cultures.

Another important difference is in social discourse. American Indian students may not talk at all if they are in an uncomfortable social situation. They may be listening and engaged with what is going on, but responding verbally is not a priority.

What becomes clear is that "some non-Indian teachers, especially those who are new at their work, feel very uncomfortable with some American Indian *ways of being*. It is hard for them to see how issues of trust, discourse difference, and a history of oppression connect." Scollon and Scollon (1997) state that it may be difficult for non-Indian people to differentiate between behavior that is born of discomfort or difference in social discourse and that is passive resistance and, hence non-traditional.

Imagine then how this affects the results of quantitative type of testing (see Figure 3, Chapter 3) that is typically used in speech/language testing as well as psychological testing? The result is a high percentage of American Indian students who qualify for special education. Cleary and Peacock (1998) discuss the following differences between the culture of American Indian students and their school culture.

- Most American Indian students enter schools that mirror the culture of the dominant society; that culture is often very different from the culture of their homes and environments.
- There may be visible differences in peoples of different cultures-differences of skin, color, dress, habits, ad food; and there may be deeper and subtler differences of values and of ways of being and learning.
- A continuum exists between traditional and nontraditional students. What is important is that all humans be allowed feelings of integrity and pride connected with whom they are, with how they identify.
- Respecting what others value and do is a way to help them develop both the self-esteem and feelings of integrity that will enhance their learning.
- Teachers must study the communities in which they teach and develop strategies that close the distance between the way students operate in school and the way they operate at home.
- Teachers must be flexible enough to give students the room to be who they are while learning skills that will make their lives both purposeful and hopeful.
- Non-Indian teachers should inform American Indian parents that they are trying to learn about their community. They should ask parents and students to inform if they are uncomfortable with anything the students are being asked to do.
- American Indian teachers or teacher's aides in our schools are appropriate resources. It is important to ask questions that are pertinent to work as excessive questions about native spirituality may be seen as intrusive.
- Remember: Students need to be valued for who they are, not for who their teacher wants them to be.

Educators working with American Indian students need to consider many areas of cultural differences. Non-Indian educators may have difficulty seeing these cultural differences and recognizing them as part of the process in becoming a more culturally responsive educator. Cultural responsibility means seeing, hearing, smelling, tasting and touching with your heart and your head that culture you will never really know because it is not yours. By attempting to understand the culture non-Indian educators honor it and themselves.

Culturally Responsive Educators

A critical need for culturally responsive teachers of American Indian students exists in American schools. Culturally responsive teachers think multicultural rather than monocultural in content. Becoming a multicultural teacher is a developmental process without a known point of completion or point of arrival. It is an educator's responsibility to learn as much as possible about the learning styles of each student and to adapt instruction to those learning styles. No easy answers, no short cuts and no simple changes give American Indian students equal opportunity. Many culturally responsive teachers have been innovative and understanding enough to succeed in teaching American Indian learners.

American Indian Learning Styles

In a subtle way, educators and others may perceive these very different learning styles as something "wrong" with a student who doesn't respond in a traditional Euro-American style. The worldview typically reflects the value system of a student. American Indian students may exhibit their values and learning styles in various ways. They may manifest in the following ways and may be perceived as need for a referral to special education.

- Reliance on nonverbal communication.
- Only saying what is necessary.
- Speaking in a soft voice, because loud speech indicates aggression or anger.
- Displaying a deep sense of humor and an ability to see humor in life. Educators may perceive this as rude or as emotionally unbalanced .
- Long pauses in conversation. If a student is patient in a response rather than giving instant answers, educators may think he or she doesn't know the answer or may have an auditory processing problem.

When an American Indian student comes into an IEP team evaluation, what issues may the classroom teacher present? If a student doesn't volunteer information, doesn't talk much and appears to not have adequate expressive language skills, what questions should IEP team members ask?

As a classroom teacher develops an awareness of a student's cultural influences, it becomes a process and one with no clear beginning or arrival time.

The majority of middle class Caucasian students begin school as auditory learners. They have been bombarded with verbal information since early childhood. Their parents talk to them a great deal. They are encouraged to talk, to learn new words and to express their ideas. Their parents have taught them many things through verbal explanations.

In contrast, many Indian students are visual learners. They have learned to do things by observing. When their parents instruct them in new skills, they do it mostly by showing them how to do something. The students learn to do the things their par-

■ **Figure 7**
Learning Styles

American Indian Learning Styles	Non-Indian Learning Styles
• Informal atmosphere	• Well-defined, organized.
• Visual learner, prefers demonstrations, illustrations.	• Auditory learner. Prefers verbal instructions, explanations.
• Observes carefully, then tries when secure in doing so.	• Listens to explanation, then learns by trial & error.
• Wants teacher as model.	• Wants teacher as consultant.
• Prefers to be shown. Likes learning through stories, pictures, activities.	• Prefers direct instruction. Likes to try new things.
• Accepts intuition, coincidence, feelings, emotions or hunches.	• Starts with parts, specific facts, and builds toward the whole.
• Cooperates and assists.	• Insists on reason, logic facts, and causes.
• Socially oriented.	• Relies on language for thinking and remembering.
• Personal, informal, spontaneous.	• Competes for recognition. Likes talking and writing.
• Likes guided approach.	• Task oriented. Likes discovery approach.
• Relies on images for thinking and remembering.	
• Likes drawing and manipulation.	

ents do by imitating them. They may have been taught that children should not be talking continuously. The children have done most of their learning through direct experience and participation in real-world activities. As children grow, experiences in the community reinforce these patterns.

All students have their own learning styles through which they learn most easily. Although all learning styles are found in all groups of people, the majority of students learn most easily through the learning styles traditionally practiced by their own cultural group. In his book *Teaching the Native American Indian*, Hap Gilliand notes how the learning styles of American Indians differ from those of non-Indian people (see Figure 7).

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American Indian Web sites

First Nations Site Index: www.dickshovel.com/www.html
HoChunk Hocak Wazijaci Language and Culture Program: www.nwt.net/~hocak/
Library of Congress www.loc.gov
Menominee Clans Story: http://library.uwsp.edu/MenomineeClans/
Menominee History/Culture: www.dickshovel.com/men.html
Ojibwe History/Culture: www.tolatsga.org/ojib.html
Potawatomi History/Culture: www.dickshovel.com/pota.html
Teaching and Learning with Native Americans: A Handbook for Non-Native Educators: http://literacynet.org/lp/namericans/
Smithsonian Institute Research Information Systems: www.siris.si.edu

American Indian books, videos, CD-ROMs, audiocassettes

www.goodminds.com
www.greatpeace.org
www.kegedonce.com
www.ruraledu.org/rtpitxtz.html

5

Spanish-Speaking Americans

Hispanic students in Wisconsin schools

Bilingual/bicultural schools, those taught in another language plus English, existed in America at the time of the American Revolution and were common until World War I. As immigrant groups settled the Midwest and upper Midwest, they frequently set up private schools to ensure that their children received at least some instruction in their native language and culture. Somewhat less frequently, public schools, interested in competing with these private bilingual schools, established similar bilingual/bicultural programs of their own.

Two of the earliest Midwest public school examples were German bilingual schools founded in the 1830s in Cincinnati, Ohio, and Indianapolis, Indiana. A decade later, Ohio went so far as to enact legislation encouraging German/English bilingual schools. Milwaukee, with its large German immigrant population, soon followed the lead of other Midwest state in accommodating the needs of this large group of immigrant settlers through private, parochial, and public bilingual schools. This era of bilingual schools came to a close during and after World War I, when speaking another language, particularly German, took on negative, anti-American connotations.

There is little documentation on Spanish-speaking settlers to Wisconsin during this early period, but it is thought that Mexican Americans and other Spanish-speaking groups began arriving in the state as early as the 1850s, seeking both seasonal farm work and jobs in Milwaukee's steel mills and manufacturing plants. Soon, companies in growing cities like Milwaukee were recruiting workers. Included among these were often single, male Mexicans, Texans, and less frequently, Puerto Ricans who, after establishing employment, would often send for their families.

In 1929, on Milwaukee's south side, the first Spanish-speaking church opened as the Mission of Our Lady of Guadalupe. After World War II, Spanish-speaking immigration increased, with greater recruitment efforts in Puerto Rico and among Puerto Ricans already living on the East Coast. The Cuban Revolution of the 1960s brought newly immigrated Cuban Americans to Milwaukee's Spanish-speaking communities.

The year 1963 is generally regarded as the beginning of modern bilingual education with the establishment of a Spanish-English bilingual school in Dade County, Miami, Florida. This school served predominantly recent arrivals from Cuba who were interested in learning English and maintaining their Spanish for an eventual return to their homeland. New Mexico and Texas followed Florida's lead and by 1967, 21 states had bilingual programs. That same year, Senator Ralph Yarborough of Texas introduced federal legislation within the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) to assist in funding bilingual programs and teacher training opportunities throughout the United States. Federal law and federal case law further defined bilingual/bicultural education while Wisconsin legislative acts defined how implementation would proceed in the state. This is discussed in Chapter 1.

An Umbrella Term for a Diverse Population

The term "Hispanic" is an umbrella term created by the U.S. Census Bureau in 1968 to describe a large and diverse population. It began to be used when President Lyndon Johnson declared National Hispanic Heritage Week. This was done at the request of then-Senator Joseph Montoya of New Mexico. In New Mexico, the term "Hispanic" dates back to pre-Mexican independence days when the non-Indian colonists of New Mexico could trace their origins to Spain. The choice of the adjective "Hispanic" rather than Latino, which was more common in Texas and California, can

be traced to the New Mexican influence in the U.S. Congress.

Hispanics may share a language, a religion, and a similar culture, but it is erroneous to think of Hispanics as a homogeneous group because they are from many different countries, with different histories and ethnicities. It must be realized that each "Hispanic" group is distinct and unique with its own history. Each group has its own relation to this country, and each tends to be concentrated in different geographical areas of the United States.

Two characteristics Hispanics have in common are the heritage of the Spanish conquest as well as the culture and utilization of the Spanish language. Yet, the conquest was experienced differently in the various territories, and the culture was specific to native folk customs and practices. For example, the music of Puerto Rico has a rhythm different from that of Mexico, the dance of Cuba is distinct and foreign to Salvadorians. The symbols used to rally people, such as flags, music, dance, heroes, anniversaries are distinct (Melville, 1988).

For the purpose of this publication, the term Spanish speaking will be use to include other terms for peoples such as Hispano, Latino, Chicano, Spanish American, Central American, and Caribbean. The preference for one term over another for self-identification may reflect a person's political viewpoint. It may also reflect the different historical perspective of the region of the United States in which the individual was raised, or the individual's family history in the United States.

School Experiences and Attitudes

Teachers should be aware that Spanish-speaking students come to school in the United States from a wide variety of experiences and backgrounds. According to the 2000 ratings from the National Office on Literacy, Hispanic countries vary greatly in the literacy rates of their populations. Literacy rates have been low (65 percent or below) in Bolivia, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, and Peru. The highest literacy ratings (93 percent and above) have included Argentina, Chile, Costa Rica, Cuba, Spain, and Uruguay.

Regardless of literacy rates, education is compulsory in most countries from age 6 to 12 or 14. However, literacy skills also vary depending on each individual's access to formal schooling. In some countries, children have not had regular schooling as they have to work to supplement the family's income or they live in a remote, rural area where schools are far away and transportation is not provided. This situation is often common in Mexico, Bolivia, and Guatemala. Thus, it becomes important to learn about the educational background of each individual Spanish-speaking student before judging his or her abilities to learn or prior to determining the existence or non-existence of a disability.

As with most members of different cultural backgrounds, members of Spanish-speaking cultures have varying attitudes toward education and schooling. For many immigrant families, the value of maintaining Spanish and the value of learning English may differ. Even the attitudes toward bilingual educational programs may differ within individual families. Overall, studies have shown that recent immigrants generally feel that schooling can provide greater opportunities for the next generation (Romo, 1984; Suarez-Orozco, 1987) . Furthermore, children are encouraged and supported to learn English and to be responsible for their own learning.

Experienced educators noted various familial factors that may influence the education of Hispanic students (LaBoy, 2000). In many cases, Spanish-speaking parents may be monolingual, speaking only Spanish. Their children become bilingual through

their educational and social experiences. As a result of this language gap, parents are not always able to help their children with their homework, which is often sent home in English. Secondly, this language barrier can affect the parent's comfort level toward the teacher/school. Furthermore, along with the homework, some parents are unable to explain educational expectations to their children as they themselves are in the process of becoming acculturated. Even notes from educators written in Spanish may include terms that are too technical or official for easy comprehension. Little things such as this can impact a parent's confidence level in working with school personnel.

Family style and structure can impact education, too. Members of the extended family may reside in the home, but they may or may not be bilingual and biliterate and thus may be unable to provide academic support in the home environment. Each student's situation will be unique.

Holidays and Influence on School Attendance

Hispanic holidays celebrated are often Christian-based holidays. In many homes, it is customary to maintain an altar commemorating the Blessed Virgin, favorite saints, or deceased loved ones. Religious customs may determine daily routines and annual celebrations. Many Spanish-speaking groups share similar holidays.

Christmas may or may not be celebrated as traditionally celebrated by many Christians within the United States. Mexican traditions may include the Posadas. *Posadas*, or *Novenas*, are religious re-enactments of Mary and Joseph's journey to Bethlehem. These last approximately nine days, from Dec. 16 to 24. In many cases, families celebrate these yearly celebrations with their relatives, often, traveling distances to be with these family members. The Christmas holiday may be extended to include New Year's Eve, New Year's Day and the celebration of the Three Kings on Jan. 6. School attendance may decrease during these holidays.

Cinco de Mayo, or the Fifth of May, is an occasion to celebrate the friendships made between Mexicans and Americans. It is a day that honors the defeat of the French army. Some Spanish-speaking groups unite to celebrate this holiday. Some schools incorporate it into their annual celebrations, having music and food to share.

Día de Los Muertos, or Day of the Dead, may be considered one of Mexico's most popular holidays. On Nov. 1 and 2 families honor their deceased loved ones by going to the graveyards and bringing their offerings of food, drink, candy, and flowers. This is a day of remembrance of family members and friends. This tradition coincides with Christian celebrations of All Saints' Day and All Souls' Day.

Mother's Day is often celebrated May 10 and is a significant holiday within the Mexican culture.

Language Disorders among Second-Language Learners

Communicative competence, a comparative term for language proficiency, has been defined as "the ability to use the linguistic and social convention of a particular language and culture in which the communication occurs" (Merino, 1992). Early in the acquisition process, second-language learners often experience a "silent period," during which their verbalizations are minimal as a result of intense focus on listening and on absorption of the new language. There should still be signs of receptive language learning, and nonverbal communication should still be taking place. This phase usually lasts up to six months. On the whole, research has found that conversational lan-

guage skills generally take between two to three years to develop while academic language skills may take between five to seven years.

Young English-language learners (ELL) have vocabularies that consist of two languages (Pearson, Fernandez and Oller, 1995); consequently, semantic measures administered to monolinguals are not appropriate for bilingual students. These children often switch back and forth between languages. Virtually, all ELLs code mix. "Code mixing" or "code switching" is defined as first-language segments interjected into a second language. It serves as a "bridge between languages" and is not indicative of language disorders (Langdon and Merino, 1992). A second-language learner would likely use the Spanish phonology, morphology, and syntax forms to communicate in English during the early stages of language acquisition. As the English system becomes more familiar, these forms become increasingly more accurate.

Information from research over the past two decades can also assist in assessment. Anderson (1998) found that the areas of morphology and syntax are of particular difficulty to students who have language impairments, particularly students who "have been diagnosed as specific language impaired and/or language disabled." It has also been noted that Spanish-speaking students with language disorders may exhibit certain characteristics when learning a second language, such as difficulty learning a new vocabulary and generalizing bound morphemes to familiar and unfamiliar words (Restrepo, 1998).

Merino (1992) stresses the need to be cautious when screening Spanish-speaking students for language disorders. Parents often are well aware when their children are having communication difficulties and can often serve as valuable sources of information during the screening and / or evaluation processes (Kayser, 1989). It is important to determine the student's stage of language development when attempting to distinguish between language disorder or language difference (Paul, 1995). To achieve this, speech/language pathologists need to compare the student's language to current research data on normal development of Spanish. Speech and language pathologists must also "match the communication demands of a school setting with the language skills the child brings to school" (Merino, 1992).

In general, the type and extent of exposure to a second language affects the learning process. For instance, a Spanish-speaking student who has difficulty learning gender and number inflections (for example, *la niña, las niñas)* may have received increased exposure to English. Consequently, he or she may have learned, and adopted, the English system which does not require gender and number agreement between articles and nouns. Students who have been exposed to Spanish and English often combine both languages, thus creating terms such as "trocka" for truck, or "parca" for park, which utilize the vocabulary from one language and the word structure from another.

Currently, there are no valid and reliable methods to assess the language and communicative proficiency of Spanish-speaking students in the United States. (Restrepo, 1998). As the goal of assessment is to discriminate between a language difference and language disorder, knowledge of normal Spanish-language development as well as Spanish morphology, syntax, and phonetics will assist the speech-language pathologist in this determination. Additional information from interviews, formal assessment and observations, along with parental reports, family language learning histories, and data gathered from language samples begin to paint an accurate picture of these students' true language levels. Incidentally, it has been found that the Mean Length of Utterance (MLU), not the chronological age, provides a more accurate estimate of a child's

language level (Kvaal, et al, 1999, Linares-Orama et al, 1997). In addition, the following factors must be considered: English proficiency level (see Appendix A), cultural background, and socioeconomic status.

Spanish Morphology, Syntax and Phonology

The goal for an appropriate speech and language assessment is to determine whether a student's speech and language development is developing typically in his/her first language or is disordered in his/her first language. It is important to remember that PL 94-142 requires that students be assessed within their primary language. In other words, to qualify for special education, the delays need to be demonstrated and documented within the student's dominant language. In order to determine a difference versus a disorder, the speech and language pathologist must consider the Spanish morphology, syntax, and phonology as well as dialects spoken to attempt to analyze the student's speech and language development.

Morphology

Most of the data on development of morphosyntactical features in the Spanish language has been obtained from spontaneous speech samples and, mostly, through cross-sectional studies of a limited number of groups (Anderson, 1995). In Spanish, meaning is conveyed through inflections, not through word order. Most of the research done on the language has focused on tense and number inflections (Merino, 1992).

Figure 8
Spanish articles

	Singular	Plural
Female	*La niña encontró su juguete.* (The girl found her toy.)	*Las niñas encontraron sus juguetes.* (The girls found their toys.)
Male	*El niño encontró su juguete.* (The boy found his toy.)	*Los niños encontraron sus juguetes.* (The boys found their toys)

The Spanish articles, nouns, pronouns, possessives, and adjectives are inflected to reflect gender and/or number. With the exception of possessives and numerals, all the inflected features within a sentence must agree in terms of number and gender (Anderson, 1995). Figure 8 shows some examples of Spanish articles.

In Spanish, the article varies from: *la / el / las / los* to reflect number and gender differences. Merino points out that the same occurs with the indefinite articles *uno / unos* (male) and *una / unas* (female). Possessives are inflected for number: *su /sus* (see Figure 8). In Spanish, the articles are placed before the subject noun, as in *"Veo* ***al*** *doctor Brown"* (I see [the] Dr. Brown) or *"Asi es la vida"* (That's [the] life).

Verbs: In Spanish, verbs are highly inflected features (Anderson, 1995). The Spanish verbs reflect mood (indicative, imperative, subjunctive), tense (present, past, future), person (first, second and third) and number (singular and plural) (Merino, 1992). Like in English, the preterit is a feature that is acquired early in the development of the Spanish language (Merino, 1992; Anderson, 1995). Other inflectional variations are less common due to their complexity and are, therefore, optional to the Spanish

speaker. Anderson finds that the subjunctive mode is the most difficult verb feature to be acquired by students who have language impairments. For example, *Yo quiero que te vayas* (I want that [you] go away).

Verbs are differentiated by their word endings: /ar/ as in caminar, /er/ as in comer and /ir/ as in subir. Of the three types, the verbs having /ar/ endings occur most frequently and are acquired earlier than other verbs (Anderson, 1998). Spanish has three main auxiliary verbs: ser / estar (to be), haber (to have), and andar (to go), that can also function as main verbs. The verb *andar* is commonly used as an auxiliary verb among Mexican-Spanish speakers. The verbs *ser* and *estar* function as linking verbs (copulas) in Spanish. Both are semantically and syntactically different forms, unlike the English copula "to be" (Anderson, 1998).

Pronouns: The use of the personal pronouns in Spanish is optional because their information is encoded in the verbs (Anderson, 1995). For instance, the sentence "Van a comer?" (Going to eat?) could be phrased "Ustedes van a comer?" (Are you going to eat?). Both of these forms are acceptable. Pronouns are also modified according to gender and number. Spanish also differentiates between second person singular "you" (tú) and the third person singular "you" (usted). For instance, the form tú is acceptable during informal exchanges whereas *Usted* is the formal mode of address.

Nouns: Nouns in Spanish are inflected according to gender and number. The "o" is added to masculine nouns and the "a" to feminine. For example, gato (male cat) or gata (female cat). Similar to English, nouns are assigned "s" or "es" according to their consonant or vowel endings. For example, pan/panes (bread/s) and nevera/neveras (refrigerator/s). Students who have been exposed to English sometimes exhibit errors in article-noun-gender agreement (Anderson, 1995).

Syntax

Researchers claim that, generally, Spanish syntax is one area of language that is least likely to be affected by "dialectical and stylistic variations" perhaps as a result of the morphological diversity and word order flexibility of the Spanish language (Me-

■ **Figure 9**

Acceptable Morphological Variations

Adapted with permission from Merino, Barbara J. "Acquisition of Syntactic and Phonological Features in Spanish." In *Hispanic Children and Adults with Communication Disorders: Assessment and Intervention.* Eds. H. W. Langdon and Li-Rong L. Cheng. Excellence in Practice Series, Katherine G. Butler, Ed., Aspen Publishers, Inc., 1992.

Spanish Construction	English translation
La luna se ve llena.	The moon looks full.
Se ve llena la luna	(It) Look(s) full the moon.*
El hombre caminaba en la montana.	The man walked in the mountains.
Caminaba en la montana el hombre.	Walked in the mountains the man.*
Caminaba el hombre en la montana.	Walked the man in the mountains.*
Nosotras fuimos al parque.	We went to the park.
Fuimos al parque.	(We) went to the park.*
Las mujeres ya llegaron.	The women have arrived.
Ya llegaron las mujeres.	Have arrived the women.*
Yo sabia que no era cierto.	I knew that it wasn't true.
Sabia que no era cierto.	(I) Knew that it wasn't true.*

* Varriations not usually acceptable in English.

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rino, pg. 59). Figure 9 lists some morphological variations considered acceptable.

Adjective - Noun Reversals: Differences between English and Spanish morphology include adjective-noun reversal. In Spanish, the noun precedes the adjective, el cielo azul (sky bright), except when using numerals: dos victorias (two victories); comparatives: gran dama (grand lady); and ordinals: el primer paso (the first step) (Anderson, 1995).

Negatives: The use of negatives is also different. In Spanish, the negative form precedes the verb phrase. For instance: *El sol no está brillando hoy* translates as: The sun not is shining today. Double negatives are acceptable variations, as in *El no ha recibido correo nunca*, which translates as: He has not received mail never. These double negatives are less commonly used (Anderson, 1995).

Questions: Questions are easier to formulate because, unlike English, there is no need to invert the auxiliary verbs (*ser, estar, andar).* For example: *¿Qué quieres hacer?* translates as What do you want to do today?. Yes/No questions are simply formulated by raising the intonation at the end of the sentence. For example, *¿Quieres café*? (Do you want coffee?). Researchers have found that children learn Yes/No questions first and "WH" questions later (Merino, 1992).

Examples of questions are:

¿El va a comer? ..... *He (is) going to eat?*
¿Ella está en la casa? ..... *She is in the house?*
¿Quieres café? ..... *(You) want coffee?*

Figure 10 lists language features typically found in Spanish-speaking Mexican American children between the ages of 2.0 to 4.9 years, upon entrance to an U.S. English school system.

Figure 10

Language Features of Spanish-Speaking Mexican American Children

Kvaal, Joy T., et al. "The Acquisition of 10 Spanish Morphemes by Spanish-Speaking Children." *Language, Speech and Hearing Services in the Schools*, Vol. 42, Dec. 1999.

Ages 2.6 to 2.8	**Ages 2.6 to 4.2**	**Ages 4.2 to 4.9**
demonstratives, articles, copulas, regular / irregular present, indicative, articles.	regular preterit indicative, plurals, possessive "de".	preposition "en", irregular preterit, indicative.

Common Language Patterns among English-Language Learners

Researchers have found a natural order to the acquisition of English as a second language (Merino, 1992). Spanish-speaking children with Limited English Proficiency (LEP) tend to use English-language patterns that reflect Spanish-language patterns. This is a natural phenomenon and ought not be considered reflective of a language disorder. Figure 11 shows the patterns often found among Spanish-speaking children learning English as a second language.

Differences between English and Spanish: Spanish and English differ significantly in terms of phonology, morphology, and syntax. Figure 12 shows some of the basic differences between the languages.

Spanish Phonological System: Spanish Phonemes and How They are Formed

According to Larry Mattes and George Santiago, Spanish-speaking people in the

Figure 11

Patterns in Spanish-Speaking Children Learning English as a Second Language

Modified from *Characteristics of Spanish-Influenced English* by Rhea Paul (1995). Original information taken from Kayser, H. (1993). Permission granted by Aspen Publishers, Inc.

Verbs:	**Noun inflections**	**Semantics**
□ Use of "ed" verb ending is inconsistent □ Use of third-person singular markings is also inconsistent □ Use of "have" for the copula "am" as in *"I have 8 years"* (for "I am 8 years old") □ Use of the infinitive for future tense marker as in *"I go to work"* for "I am going to work"	□ Inconsistent use of plural /s/ marker □ The article "the" may be deleted □ Comparative "er" is substituted by "more"	□ Number, color, and letter words are not used frequently during parent-child interaction. □ Names for objects, donors of objects, and relatives are stressed
Negatives	**Questions**	**Pragmatics**
□ Use of *"No"* for *"not"* □ "No" may be used instead of "don't" when using the imperative mode as in *"I no want"* for "I don't' want"	□ "Do" is sometimes deleted. □ Intonation is used more frequently to mark questions	□ Closer physical distances when speaking to others are tolerated by some groups. □ In some groups, lack of eye-contact can mean a sign of attentiveness

Figure 12

Differences Between English and Spanish

Adapted with permission from Merino, Barbara J. "Acquisition of Syntactic and Phonological Features in Spanish." In *Hispanic Children and Adults with Communication Disorders: Assessment and Intervention*. Eds. H. W. Langdon and Li-Rong L. Cheng. Excellence in Practice Series, Katherine G. Butler, Ed., Aspen Publishers, Inc., 1992.

Spanish	**English**
24 consonants →	18 consonants
5 vowels (short vowels) →	12 – 14 vowels (long and short).
Meaning is conveyed through inflection →	Meaning is conveyed through word order.
Adjectives follow the noun →	Adjectives precede the noun.
Relies on gender and number markers →	Possessive forms reflect gender and number.
Uses formal and informal modes of address →	No distinction between formal versus informal modes.
Negatives precede the auxiliary verb form →	Negatives follow the verb form.

United States generally use 18 or 19 consonant phonemes. The following basic description of the characteristics of these phonemes is reprinted with permission from *Teaching Spanish Speech Sounds: Drills for Articulation Therapy, Third Edition.*

Phoneme: /b/

The phoneme /b/ is a voiced, bilabial stop at the beginning of an utterance and

after /m/. A voiced, bilabial fricative is produced in all other contexts. The sound is produced without aspiration in the Spanish words and is less forceful than the English /b/ sound. The phoneme is represented by the graphic symbols **b** and **v**.

Phoneme: /ch/

The phoneme /ch/ is a voiceless, palatal affricate. It is similar the English /ch/ although it tends to be produced with less aspiration. It is represented by the letters **ch** in Spanish.

Phoneme: /d/

The phoneme /d/ is a voiced, dental stop at the beginning of words and after /n/ or /l/. It is produced as a voiced, dental fricative in all other contexts, similar to the English voiced /th/ . The phoneme often is eliminated in word-final position and in words ending in **-ado**. The letter **d** is used to represent this phoneme in Spanish.

Phoneme: /f/

The phoneme /f/ is a voiceless, labio-dental fricative. Pronunciation is similar to the English /f/ phoneme, which is represented by the letter **f** in Spanish.

Phoneme: /g/

The phoneme /g/ is a voiced, velar stop at the beginning of utterances and after /n/. It is produced as a voiced, velar fricative in all other contexts. This phoneme is represented by the letters **gu** before **e** and **i** and by the letter **g** in all other positions within words.

Phoneme: /k/

The phoneme /k/ is a voiceless, velar stop. This sound is produced with aspiration in English words but is generally unaspirated in Spanish. The phoneme is represented by the letters **qu** before **e** and **i** and by the letter **c** in other contexts. It may also be represented by the letter **k**.

Phoneme: /l/

The phoneme /l/ is produced as a voiced, alveolar lateral in most contexts. It often will be produced as a dental when followed by a dental consonant. It is represented by the letter **l** in Spanish.

Phoneme: /m/

The phoneme /m/ is a voiced, bilabial nasal. It is produced similar to the English /m/ and is represented by the letter **m** in Spanish. The letter **n** is realized as /m/ when it precedes /p/, /b/, or /m/.

Phoneme: /n/

The phoneme /n/ is a voiced, alveolar nasal. Productions of this phoneme vary from a dental, alveolar, palatal, or velar depending on the influence of the consonant following it in context. The phoneme /n/ is generally represented by the letter **n** but may be spelled with an **m** at the end of a few words.

Phoneme: /ñ/

The phoneme /ñ/ is a voiced, palatal nasal, similar to the **ny** in the English word **canyon**. It is represented by the letter **ñ** in Spanish.

Phoneme: /p/

The phoneme /p/ is a voiceless, bilabial stop. The Spanish /p/ is unaspirated, unlike the /p/ in English. It is represented by the letter **p** in Spanish.

Phoneme: /r/

The phoneme /r/ is a voiced, alveolar tap represented by the letter /r/ in Spanish

words. It is produced by tapping the tongue against the alveolar ridge rapidly as air passes through the vocal tract, similar to the English /d/. It is different in that a smaller portion of the tongue touches the alveolar ridge for the Spanish phoneme as compared to English. Spanish speakers from Puerto Rican and the northeastern United States commonly replace this /r/ with an /l/ in final syllables of words. It may also be replaced by /l/ by speakers from the Caribbean and parts of South America (Dalbor, 1980).

Phoneme: /rr/

The phoneme /rr/ is a voiced, alveolar trill. It is represented by an **r** at beginnings of words and by **rr** between vowels. Dialectical variations are common with this phoneme. It can be replaced with the voiced velar or uvular trill in parts of Puerto Rico.

Phoneme: /s/

The phoneme /s/ is a voiceless, alveolar fricative represented by the letters c, s, and z. Dialectical variations are common with this phoneme. The /s/ may be replaced by the voiceless /th/. In standard Castilian, the /s/ and the /th/ are considered to be two separate phonemes, whereas it may be replaced by an /h/ before consonants or word ends in the Caribbean, Andalucia, and also in parts of South America. Furthermore, it may be replaced by a /z/ before a voiced consonant.

Phoneme: /t/

The phoneme /t/ is a unaspirated, voiceless, alveolar stop where the tongue presses against the upper front teeth during production. It is represented by the letter **t** in Spanish.

Phoneme: /w/

The phoneme /w/ is a voiced bilabial-velar fricative. It may alternate with the /gu/ in some dialects. It is produced with more tension than in English. It is represented by **hu**, **gu**, and **w** in Spanish words.

Phoneme: /x/

The phoneme /x/ is a voiceless, velar fricative. It may be replaced by a voiceless, glottal fricative in some dialects. It is represented by the letters **g** (before **e** and **i**), **j**, and **x**. (e.g., Mexico).

Phoneme: /y/

The phoneme /y/ is a voiced, palatal fricative similar to the **y** in **yes**. Depending on context (in initial position of words or after **n** and **l**), a voiced palatal affricate may result. It may also be replaced by a palatal lateral in some dialects. It is represented by the **hi**, **y**, and **ll** in Spanish words.

Ages of Acquisition of Spanish Phonemes

Figure 13 lists the ages at which 90 percent of Spanish-speaking people were able to produce Spanish consonants (Merino, 1992).

It should be noted that the English /t/, /zh/, /sh/, /voiced th/, /v/, /ng/, /r/, /z/, and many vowels do not occur in the Spanish language (see Figure 14). Many Spanish-dominant speakers also may use substitutions for these speech sounds within their English to account for these phonemes. Furthermore, in the Spanish language, the /d/, /n/, and /s/ are generally the only final consonants on word endings. Many Spanish words end in vowels. Thus, some Spanish speakers learning English may initially omit final sounds on English words (Langdon, p. 153).

■ **Figure 13**

Ages of Acquisition of Spanish Phonemes

Acquisition Age	Phoneme(s)
3	/ch/, /f/, /k/, /m/, /n/, /ñ/, /p/, /t/, and /j/
4	/b/, /g/, /l/ and /r/
6	/s/
7	/x/, /d/, and /rr/*

*Some Spanish speakers never attain the pronunciation of the /rr/ phoneme but are still intelligible. Other Spanish or bilingual speakers may use an /r/ like phoneme, taking on an English flare. Either way, the /rr/ may be absent from phonological system of various speakers of Spanish.

■ **Figure 14**

English Consonants and Cluster Sounds that do not Exist in Spanish:

Reprinted with permission from Langdon, Henriette W. "Language Communication and Sociocultural Patterns in Hispanic Families." In *Hispanic Children and Adults with Communication Disorders: Assessment and Intervention.* Eds. H.W. Langdon and Li-Rong L. Cheng. Excellence in Practice Series, Katherine G. Butler, Ed., Aspen Publishers, Inc., 1992.

Initial	Medial	Final	Examples
z	z	z	zebra, scissors, houses
v	v	v	vest, harvest, have
voiced th	voiced th	voiced th	them, bathing, bathe
dz	dz	dz	joke, judging, cage
sh	sh	sh	ship, pushing, cash
ng	ng	ng	fingers, ring
ė	ė	ė	think, toothbrush, path
--	z	z	vision, garage
		b	cab
		p	hip
		g	bug
		m	came
		t	cat
		k	coke
		tsh	catch
		f	safe
st, sp, sk		st, sp, sk	store, spin, skate, cast, wasp, desk
sl, sw, sn			slave, swim, snail

Common Phonological Errors for a Spanish-Speaking Person

Educators should not generalize the following phonetic errors to all speakers of Spanish.

/s/ for /z/	sebra for zebra
/sh/ for /ch/	shair for chair
/ch/ for /sh/	chip for ship
/d/ for /voiced th/	den for then
/t/ for /ѐ/	tief for thief, bat for bath
/f/ for /v/	fan for van
/b/ for /v/	berry for very, cabe for cave
/?/ for /u/	pull for pool
/i/ for /I/	cheap for chip
/e/ for /ou/	call for coal
/esp/ for /sp/	Espanish for Spanish; Aystairs for stairs
/i/ for /I/	seek for sick
/a/ for /æ/	hot for hat
/e / for / e/	ayg for egg
/j/ for /dz/	yorge for George

Young Spanish Speakers and Speech Errors

Langdon and Cheng (1992) report that Spanish-speaking children often make the same types of speech errors in Spanish that unintelligible English-speaking children commonly make. The following are some common errors.

- Reduction of common sequences: /epoxo/ for espejo (mirror), which is the equivalent of /poon/ for spoon).
- Liquid deviation: /adbol/ for arbol, which is the equivalent of /wug/ for rug.
- Stridency deletion: /lapi/ for lapiz
- Deletion of Initial Consonants: /ira/ for mira (look).

Furthermore, as some English-speaking children delete final speech sounds from their words, some Spanish-speaking children delete initial speech sounds from their words.

Spanish and English Contrast

During early stages of second-language acquisition, the first language significantly influence the speech sound production in the second language. Initially, a second language learner will often incorporate language rules from the first language into the second, using the first language as a base, until the new language rules are learned. Thus, clinicians should consider the contrast between the two language systems.

Phonological Contrasts

In Spanish, there are 18 consonants, including four semivowels. English has 24 consonants and three semivowels. Spanish has five vowels, whereas English has 12 to 14 vowels. Thus, mastering vowels in English may be particularly challenging for some Spanish speakers.

■ **Figure 15**
Contrasting English and Spanish Vowels

English Vowels				**Spanish Vowels**			
	Front	Central	Back		Front	Central	Back
High	/i/, /I/		/u/ /U/	High	/i/		/u/
Mid	/e/, /e/	/e/ /e/	/o/ /B/	Mid	/e/		/B/
Low	/æ/		/a/	Low	/a/		

Dialectical Variations

Speech and language pathologists need to consider dialectical variations when assessing and working with Spanish-speaking students. Most of the research conducted in this area has examined phonological and vocabulary differences. This particular pattern is found in the Spanish spoken by monolingual Puerto Rican Spanish-speak-

■ **Figure 16**
Variations in Puerto Rican Spanish
Modified from "El Espanol en Puerto Rico" by T. Navarro, 1974, Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico. In *Hispanic Children and Adults with Communication Disorders: Assessment and Intervention.* Eds. H. W. Langdon and Li-Rong L. Cheng. Excellence in Practice Series, Katherine G. Butler, Ed., Aspen Publishers, Inc., 1992.

Phonological variations:
- Reduction of /d/ following /l/ or /n/ as in *grande* (large) ♦ *grane*, *caldo* (broth) ♦ *calo.*
- Weakening of /d/ *chorreado* (spurting)♦*chorreao.*
- Aspiration of medial /s/ preceding /p, t, k/ as in *respeto* (respect) ♦*repeto*

Lexical variations:

Palo: tree	*Nene, nena*: boy, girl
Chiringa: kite	*Pichon*: bird

Grammatical variations:
- Variant of future tense: *ella salira* (saldra) *manana* (She will go out tomorrow.)
- Reduction of "es" as in estoy, estaba, estabamos (forms of the verb to be).

ers (for example, *las casa grande).* This is simply a variant attributable to dialectical differences among Spanish-speaking groups. Figure 16 lists some of the variations found among speakers of Puerto Rican Spanish.

It is difficult to identify dialectical differences due to the heterogeneity and demographic diversity of the Spanish-speaking groups living in the United States. Studies in dialectical differences have been limited to a few subgroups. Merino cautions clinicians and educators against interpreting language dialects as language disorders and notes that research findings indicate that some dialectical variations influence the acquisition rate of certain grammatical features.

Kayser (1994) describes dialectical differences that affect various sound classes. For example, liquids and fricatives (/s/, /r/ and /rr/). These sound classes appear to be more frequently affected compared to slides, affricates, and stop sounds. Even though certain speech sounds are more commonly varied within cultural groups, it is important to remember that not every speaker of a particular dialect uses each and every dialectical feature noted in Figure 17. Dialects will vary within each individual speaker,

depending upon their language experiences, and the degree of exposure to each language.

Kayser (1994) and Cheng (1992) describe the possible variations of Mexican, Cuban, and Puerto Rican Spanish Allophones (variations of pronunciations of phonemes

■ **Figure 17**
Examples of Dialectical Variations

Phoneme	Mexican	Cuban	Puerto Rican	Environment
b	v			Free Variation
d		omitted	Reduction of /d/ following /l/ or /n/; weakening of /d/	Word final
k,g	omitted			Abutting consonants
f			f	Initial
n			Nasalization of /n/	word final
s		omitted	1) omitted 2) aspiration of medial /s/ preceding /p/, /t/, and /k/ 3) medial /s/ produced almost as a /t/	medial and final
voiced th		omitted or d	Omitted or d	medial & final
x	h	h	h	initial & final
--		r	r	initial
rr			rr *	* replaced with a voiced velar or uvular trill
r (tap)		omitted or DCB	Substitute an /l/	Double Consonant Blending (example: kweppo/cuerpo)

within a language) in Figure 17.

Considerations for Educators working with Spanish-Speaking Students

Educators need to understand their own expectations, students' communication styles and experiences, and those who may also have communication difficulties (Langdon, 1992). The "mismatch between teachers expectations and students' language/communication styles is often the cause of academic failure." Understanding a student's language-learning environment and communication patterns at home is helpful to educators to determine language differences or language-learning problems.

Ethnographic studies (research of various cultural and linguistic groups interacting in naturalistic settings) on Spanish-speaking groups in the United States are limited. Langdon (1992) discusses the following commonly held beliefs and attitudes found among Spanish-speaking groups.

Self-identity and inter-relatedness:

- Each person is characterized as unique, his/her qualities are his/her "soul"

- Respect for elders as reflected by appropriate formal mode of address.
- Handshaking is commonly used among men and women.
- Verbal interactions begin with personal questions first before addressing the business at hand.
- Family connections are strong and lasting.
- Use of gestures among children, as they speak, is common.

To clarify meaning of statements:

- For Spanish-speaking people, their needs are more important than schedules or appointments.
- Frequent use of politeness forms.

In addition the National Research Council (1998) adds that discipline and the social context of learning for English-language learners (ELLs) must be part of the information that the classroom teacher and the diagnostic team must consider when determining a difference vs a disorder. They are as follows:

- English-language learners come to school with a different set of cultural assumptions and expectations, and with widely varying levels of English proficiency. These facts influence the way in which the students acculturate to and negotiate within the dominant culture of the school, and how they are viewed and treated by the dominant culture. This often includes perceptions of academic ability held by teachers and peers. For example, the rules for how to talk in class and even how knowledge is constructed through conversation.
- Cooperative learning environments appear particularly successful for motivating the achievement and positive integration of English-language learners with school cultures.
- Lesson plans that include multiple perspectives or a multicultural component increase the motivation of English-language learners.
- Parent involvement is crucial, as with all students. Educators should assist the parents of English-language learners in learning about the expectations of the school culture and specific strategies for working with their children at home.

Studies of effective schools and classrooms emphasize the need for:

- a strong home-school connection
- professional development for all staff, including knowledge of the role of language and culture in teaching English-language learners, and how to adapt teaching strategies while maintaining high standards for these students
- effective, frequent, and varied classroom-based assessments of academic progress
- some use of the native language and culture of the students
- a balanced curriculum incorporating the basics and higher-order skills with a mix of explicit skills instruction and student-directed learning.
- English-language learners and their families should be included when school rules and discipline procedures are established.

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6

Case Studies

American Indian

Name: Sophie
Tribe: Oneida Nation
Age: 8 years, 2 months
Grade: 2

Reason for Referral

Sophie was initially referred for an Individualized Education Program (IEP) team assessment at the age of 4 during a routine "child find" screening. At that time, she was tested and placed in the Early Childhood program with identified needs in cognition as well as speech and language. Currently, Sophie does not use language consistently in the classroom. Her teacher describes her as quiet and reserved. This is her 3-year evaluation.

- Three-year re-evaluation
- Concerns expressed by teacher
- Does not use language in class, is quiet and reserved.

Background Information

A review of records revealed that Sophie was placed in Early Childhood as well as speech and language from the age of 4 to 6 years old. The initial evaluation included the Preschool Language Scale 3, PPVT -Revised, Form M, Goldman-Fristoe Test of Articulation and the Expressive One Word Picture Vocabulary Test (EOWPVT). The Boehm Test of Basic Concepts was attempted; however, Sophie did not appear to understand the directions. Sophie's classroom teacher reported that she was below average in her performance skills related to cognition. She also reported that English is the language spoken at home. Sophie's articulation skills were no longer a concern due to progress in speech and language therapy. The school psychologist reported a low verbal performance, as will as borderline adaptive skills.

During the initial assessment, the parents were not interviewed nor was there a language sample taken. There were no comparisons of how Sophie's speech and language skills compared to other children in her immediate family. There was no

- Poor gathering of background information
- No contact made of family other than attempts to reach mother.
- No comparison of how Sophie's speech and language skills compare to other children in the immediate or extended family.
- No check on the influence of otitis media on early hearing history.
- No observation in home or in the community.

check on the influence of otitis media on early hearing history. No observations were made in her home or in her community.

Previous Interventions

As Sophie transitioned from Early Childhood classes to kindergarten a review of records was conducted rather than formalized testing. A concern was noted that non-Indian personnel utilized mainstream culture standardized screening instruments at the time of the original placement.

- Non-Indian personnel utilizing mainstream culture standardized screening instruments did original screening.
- Strong history of transgenerational colonial effects of education within the family of Sophie. This was completely overlooked.
- No contact made with the home to see if the same concerns existed in the home as well as school at the time of the original Early Childhood placement.
- School attendance was not investigated for solutions.

Current Placement

Sophie currently attends second grade at the tribal school. She presents strong needs in reading and auditory processing for directions. Classroom instruction is presented in English and Oneida. The classroom teacher is very concerned about Sophie's poor growth in reading and she does not want to participate in class discussions. She doesn't finish her work and needs a lot of one-to-one guidance. She has become a behavior problem and her school attendance is very poor. She is very good at her Oneida language lessons and responds to any cultural presentations or projects. She is especially fond of art and is a leader during social dance music instruction. Her verbal output is minimal and she will "shutdown" if pressured or disciplined. Her vocal intensity is very quiet and soft. Parent input is infrequent. Sophie also has excessive absences. The school social worker/home school coordinator has been working with the family to reduce her absenteeism.

- Not tested by an Indian speech and language pathologist, no American Indian of the Oneida culture sat in on the review of testing results.
- Unknown as to whether there is a match between school and home communication patterns. Cultural factors were not considered.

Hearing Acuity

Previous reports indicated that there

- Hearing history was not researched and needs to be.

was a history of otitis media and upper respiratory infections in Early Childhood and into first grade. Sophie recently passed the hearing screening given at her school. She has a history of a runny nose and a cough.

Vision Acuitv

Sophie has worn glasses since the end of first grade. They are prescribed for reading and close visual work. Sophie often chooses not to wear them.

Tests Administered

Test of Language Development-Primary:3
Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test- Revised, Form L Test of Phonological Awareness
Language Sampling Observations

Test Results

The Test of Language Development-Primary: 3 was given to Sophie. It took many sessions due to absenteeism and poor compliance. Overall test results for various areas of language revealed below average picture vocabulary, oral vocabulary and sentence imitation as well as grammatic understanding and completion. Her overall profile was flat at the minus one standard deviation range.

Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test revealed low average receptive vocabulary. The Phonological Awareness Test revealed low average results for rhyming, deletion, and sound substitution. It was evident why Sophie had difficulty in reading and comprehension.

Observations

Sophie was observed in the regular classroom setting, in the lunchroom, and on the playground. In the classroom she did not participate during discussion and when she called on she did respond. It was

- The incidence of otitis media in American Indian children is as much as 75 percent. This disease can cause significant learning and developmental consequences.

- There were no confirmations by mother as to how or if she uses her glasses at home.
- No investigation or attempt made to recheck the vision and glasses.

- Caution was not used when interpreting and reporting the scores from measures that have not been standardized on American Indian children.
- Culturally appropriate items were not noted.
- A thorough language sample was not completed.
- A parent interview, a vital portion of the testing battery, was not completed.
- Social worker/school liaison person was not part of the re-evaluation, which left out vital information relevant to Sophie's history.
- Language sample was analyzed from a mono-cultural view.
- Consideration of Oneida dialectical and linguistic differences was not done when interpreting the results from the speech evaluation and vocabulary measures.
- Possible social and emotional factors were not considered.
- Acculturation into the dominant culture was not addressed.
- Some English sounds do not exist in Oneida and vice versa.

- Sophie was observed in more than one setting at school. Two very different results were evident.
- A home visit was not done.
- Nonverbal communication was not reported.

unclear as to whether she did not know the answer or if she chose not to respond.

She was not a behavior problem and appeared to be attentive during the discussion of a story that was read in class. Sophie was also observed in the cafeteria and was interacting with her peers in a friendly age appropriate manner. The playground observation revealed Sophie playing with two friends with verbal exchanges at all times.

Summary

Sophie is an 8-year, 2-month-old Oneida Indian child. Overall speech articulation in English and Oneida was judged to be good. Vocal intensity is within the classroom is low however in the lunchroom and on the playground it is average. There is no parental interview due to unsuccessful attempts to contact the mother. Sophie's knowledge of English vocabulary is low receptively and her knowledge and usage of English language structures was judged to be adequate. Classroom teacher reports that Sophie is quiet and does not participate in class discussions. Sophie does not complete her seatwork independently. She presents needs in receptive vocabulary, phonological awareness, and auditory processing for WH questions.

- Knowledge of Oneida culture and Oneida community were not utilized in reviewing the testing results.
- Sophie was observed interacting with other Oneida children.

Spanish

Name: Adriana
Age: 6 years, 8 months
Grade: 1

Reason for Referral

Adriana was referred to the iep team for an initial evaluation of her speech and language functioning and for possible enrollment in the learning disabilities program. This referral was prompted by Adriana's academic delays in the areas of math and literacy. She is slow to process information and has difficulty with sound-letter association.

- Consult teacher and other school personnel about specific concerns
- How long has the child been receiving formal English instruction
- What is the measured level of English language proficiency?
- Previous special education evalutions/ services?

Background Information

Adriana is the younger of two children. Both parents are originally from Mexico and Spanish is the language of the home. Adriana's mother reported an uneventful pregnancy and delivery. Developmental milestones were reached within normal limits. No current health concerns were reported. Mother has only recently become concerned about Adriana's progress in school. Mother observes that Adriana is having difficulty learning how to read, and sometimes has difficulty answering questions. When asked about her day at school Adriana is often unable to provide a complete and thoughtful answer. Mother describes Adriana as quiet but communicative in the home. Attendance has been poor, both this year and last.

- Complete parental interview, possibly in collaboration with another iep team member
- Developmental milestones within normal limits?
- Consider the family's length of stay in the United States if relevant
- What exposure (type and length) to English does the child have within the home and without?
- What language(s) do family member speak and to whom?
- Include any parental concerns
- Do the child's Spanish language skills differ from siblings or cousins?

Previous Interventions

Interventions within the classroom have included: one-to-one assistance, help from an assistant, peer tutoring, repetition of directions, using visual cues to accompany oral directions, modeling of language, allowing for increased formulation time, and the use of manipulatives to introduce new concepts.

- Length of interventions employed
- Success of those interventions
- What additional accommodations could be made

Current Placement

Adriana is currently enrolled in a first-grade classroom. Eighty percent of daily classroom instruction is presented in Spanish. Adriana receives literacy instruction in Spanish. English as a Second Language (ESL) services are provided on a weekly basis.

- Language(s) of instructions and percentage used each day (for example, 50 percent Spanish, 50 percent English)
- Year to date attendance
- Is bilingual support being provided?

Hearing Evaluation

A hearing evaluation was administered by a bilingual speech-language pathologist and was passed.

- Indicate any history of ear infections or hearing loss
- Prior hearing evaluation results should be included
- Any teacher or parental concerns?

Vision Evaluation

The school nurse administered a vision screening and no concerns were reported at this time.

- Any teacher or parental concerns?
- Does the child wear glasses? Are those glasses being used at school?

Tests Administered

Preschool Language Scale 3 - Spanish edition
Test de Vocabulario en Imagenes Peabody
Adaptaci6n Hispanoamericana Woodcock-Munoz Language Survey Spanish Form Vocabulario Sobre Dibujos subtest
Brigance Assessment of Basic Skills - Spanish version Auditory Discrimination subtest

- Consider alternative assessments: dynamic assessment, language sampling, multiple observations, interview
- What Spanish tests are available?
- Who administered the tests and what were their qualifications?
- When reporting scores one *must* indicate whether or not the measure was standardized on a Spanish-speaking population.
- Carefully examine statements in testing manuals regarding the standardization sample. The Test de Imagenes Peabody, for example, is a Spanish-standardized test. However, it was standardized on Spanish-speaking children outside of the United States and is therefore most often not an appropriate standardization for bilingual children in the United States.

Test Results

A bilingual speech-language pathologist administered all tests. All testing was completed in Spanish.

On the Preschool Language Scale 3 -

- A cautionary statement *must* accompany score if the test is a translated version only
- Was an adequate amount of information obtained? Should further testing be

Spanish edition, Adriana received the following profile of scores:
SS Percentile Age Auditory Comprehension 73 4 4-6 Expressive Communication 79 8 5-1
Total Language 73 4 4-10

Overall language skills were significantly delayed from intellectual functioning. Adriana requested repetition of directions on numerous occasions and such repetition was also provided when Adriana failed to respond to a query following adequate formulation time. Adriana demonstrated significant weaknesses in the understanding of simple time and quantity concepts, passive voice constructions and in the ability to identify age appropriate vocabulary items. Adriana had difficulty defining words and formulating simple sentences to answer questions and to retell stories. She was observed to abandon utterances when attempting to answer questions. Adriana did not use pictorial cues presented by the examiner to aid her in responding to content-based questions and frequently told the examiner that she had forgotten what it was she had wished to say. In such instances, additional formulation time did not appear helpful to Adriana.

Administration of the Test de Vocabulario en Imagenes Peabody revealed significantly delayed receptive vocabulary skills. Adriana needed prompts to indicate an answer if she did not immediately recognize it. When uncertain if an answer Adriana would simply wait for the examiner to repeat the prompt or to tell her to guess when necessary. Adriana similarly had difficulty on a measure of expressive vocabulary. She identified single words between a two- and three-year-old level but quickly hit the ceiling. When not able to name an item she would describe it by appearance or function, but most often simply chose not to respond. Adriana correctly identified 46/60 (77 percent) minimal pairs presented by the examiner from the Brigance Assessment of Basic

scheduled?

- Are the results of the standardized testing similar to teacher and parental report?
- Outline child's strengths and weaknesses
- How do Spanish and English scores compare?
- One must not use solely English scores when determining eligibility for services if English is not the child's dominant language

Skills.

A formal language sample was not obtained due to Adriana's reluctance to engage in conversation with the examiner. Both a story retell and conversational sample were solicited, but Adriana's verbal output was minimal even during play activities. While playing house Adriana responded to the examiner's comments and question with primarily single word responses.

Observations

Adriana was quiet and reluctant to initiate conversation with the examiner throughout the evaluation, even during play activities. She verbalized infrequently and was slow to formulate responses to even simple questions. Multiple repetitions of verbal directions were given. Classroom teacher reported that such behavior is typical within the classroom. Adriana had difficulty maintaining topic during conversation and responded to questions inappropriately at times.

Summary

Adriana is a first-grade student receiving primarily Spanish language academic instruction. Speech intelligibility, voice and fluency were observed to be within normal limits. Overall Spanish language skills were significantly delayed from intellectual functioning. Receptive and expressive vocabulary skills were significantly delayed as well. Overall auditory skills were weak. Adriana had difficulty following oral directions and responding to simple conversational questions as well as content-based questions.

- Observe in more than one setting (i.e. playground, ESL, classroom, gym class, etc.)
- Compare observed behavior to teacher and parental reports
- Consider a home visit

Spanish

Name: Hugo
Age: 4 years 3 months
Grade: PK

Reason for Referral

Hugo was referred by his Headstart teacher due to concerns regarding his limited verbal participation in the classroom as well as poor speech intelligibility. Hugo had also been observed to use low vocal intensity when speaking which affected his overall intelligibility. Parent had expressed concerns about Hugo's speech within the home when questioned by school personnel.

- Concerns expressed by both teacher and parent
- Quiet with adults and children in the school setting
- Teacher consulted with school SLP

Background Information

An interview with the mother revealed that Hugo was born in León, Guanajuato, Mexico. The family moved to Wisconsin when he was three months of age. Hugo is the older of two children. His younger brother is eighteen months old. Hugo was born in the home full-term following an uneventful pregnancy. There were no post-natal complications.

No current health concerns or medications were reported. Hugo had approximately six ear infections as a child, the last occurring one year ago. Mother reported that vision and hearing appear to be within normal limits. Hugo spoke his flrst words at ten months of age and began using two word phrases at twenty-nine months of age. The use of complete sentences of four or more words was seen at thirty-eight months of age. Mother reported that Hugo has difficulty producing Irl in words and sometimes says only part of a word. In the past Hugo would become frustrated when not understood by others and would cry. This frustration is no longer observed.

Spanish is the language of the home. Hugo communicates with his immediate and extended family using Spanish. He

- Teacher contacted family through a bilingual member of the school staff
- Formal interview completed by bilingual SLP, including health, language history, and language use
- Examples of where, when, and with whom the child uses Spanish and English
- Spanish is the language of the home and child's dominant language
- How do the child's speech and language skills compare to other children in the immediate or extended family?
- Family in the United States for approximately four years, but have limited contact with the community; socialize only with extended family
- Mother is primary caregiver and monolingual Spanish speaker

occasionally interacts with his two uncles and his father using English. This use of English, however, is infrequent and limited in its scope. Hugo hears and speaks English in school and in the community.

Previous Interventions

Hugo attended a headstart program for the past four months. He also attends a weekly English as a Second Language program with his mother and brother. Hugo was screened by an Early Childhood teacher and a Speech-Language Pathologist who both had a basic knowledge of the Spanish language.

- Screening completed by school SLP and bilingual EC teacher
- Contact made with home to see if concerns exist in home as well as school
- Enrollment in Headstart and family English as a Second Language classes

Current Placement

Huo currently attends a half-day Headstart program four days a week. Classroom instruction is presented in English. Classroom teacher requested a speech and language evaluation due to Hugo's limited verbal output, articulation errors, and low vocal intensity.

- Tested by ESL department?
- Receiving ESL services?

Hearing Evaluation

There is no history of hearing loss. There is a history of ear infections, but none have been reported within the last year. A hearing screening was passed.

- Hearing screening mandatory
- Any parental concerns regarding hearing acuity?
- Full audiological evaluation to be completed if screening failed

Vision Evaluation

No concerns were noted by parents or teachers. A formal screening was not administered at this time.

- No problems reported by mother

Tests Administered

Assessment of Phonological Processes-Spanish (APPS) Preschool Language Scale 3 Spanish Edition Language Sampling
Bilingual Language Proficiency Questionnaire Observations

- Use *extreme* caution when interpreting and reporting the scores from measures that have not been standardized on Spanish speakers
- Note items that may be culturally inappropriate
- Take a language sample
- Use dynamic assessment to test for learning (i.e. test, teach, retest)
- Parent interview a crucial part of testing

Test Results

The following measures were administered by a bilingual speech-language pathologist in the company of the school-based speech-language pathologist.

The Assessment of Phonological Processes - Spanish was administered in its entirety. Single word production was elicited spontaneously or by repetition when necessary. The following phonological processes were observed with their respective percentages of occurrence: syllable reduction -5 percent; consonant sequence reduction - 16 percent; stridents - 4 percent; velars - 14 percent; lateral /l/ - 7 percent; tap/trill /r/ - 78 percent; glides - 8 percent. Only the tap/trill /r/ process was in excess of 40 percent of occurrence. The overall percentage of occurrence score was 13, the phonological deviance score was 18, and the overall severity rating was mild.

The Preschool Language Scale 3 Spanish Edition was administered to assess overall language functioning. Caution must be used when interpreting the results of this measure as it was not standardized on a Spanish speaking population. It is a translated version only. Huge demonstrated abilities within the expected range for his chronological age in the areas of receptive and expressive language.

Observations

The school-based speech-language pathologist observed Hugo in the regular classroom during a whole group activity. Hugo did not verbally participate but appeared to be attentive during the activity.

Hugo was also observed in the home in the company of his mother and younger brother. Two speech pathologists were in attendance. Hugo was friendly and greeted the examiners upon their arrival. He readily answered questions about his family and his activities. He verbally interacted with his mother and brother while eating his breakfast and playing. He shared toys with the members of his fam-

- When reporting any such scores one *must* include a cautionary statement (i.e. Caution must be used when interpreting the results of this measure as it was not standardized on a Spanish speaking population. It is a translated measure only.)
- When using an interpreter on *must* include a cautionary statement in the report as the test was not administered according to the testing protocol and therefore cannot be reported as reliable and valid results
- Have language sample analyzed by a bilingual SLP or the most qualified Spanish speaker available who can look at the sentence structure, verb and vocabulary usage, etc.
- Consider dialectical differences when interpreting results from speech evaluation and vocabulary measures
- Some English sounds do not exist in Spanish and vice versa

- Observe student in more than one setting at school if possible (i.e. classroom, playground, lunchroom)
- Do a home visit if possible
- Observe non-verbal communication
- Observe child interacting with another Spanish speaker

ily and the examiners and engaged them in conversation.

Summary

Hugo is a 4-year, 3-month-old Spanish speaking child. Overall speech intelligibility in Spanish is good. He does not demonstrate any phonological processes in excess of 40 percent with the exception of tap/trill /r/. Vocal intensity within the home is normal. When not understood, Hugo readily responds to requests for repetition.

Hugo's Spanish language skills appear to be within normal limits for his chronological age. He effectively uses Spanish in the home to meet his communication needs. Parental interview revealed that Hugo is an outgoing and expressive child who interacts with family members using Spanish.

Exposure to English has been limited to school experience. Hugo's quiet demeanor within the school environment is likely due to the fact that he is in the early stages of second-language acquisition. The first stage of second-language acquisition is a silent stage in which one listens and observes, but in which production is extremely limited. Hugo's knowledge of English vocabulary and English language structure, based on descriptive information provided by classroom teacher and parents, is no sufficient for oral classroom participation at this time.

Activities and strategies that will encourage Hugo's English language development would include: songs, rhymes, repetitive activities like calendar and weather, risk-free opportunities to participate, and predictable routines within the school environment. Hugo's English language development should be monitored to determine the need for further evaluation. Two to three years should be allowed before such testing to allow for the development of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) in English.

7

Appendixes

■ Appendix A

LEP Levels of English Language Learners

LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENCY LEVELS
[PI 13.07(1)-(5), Wis. Admin. Rule – Revised 2002

Level 1 – Beginning/Preproduction:

The student does not understand or speak English with the exception of a few isolated words or expressions.

Level 2 – Beginning/Production:

The student understands and speaks conversational and academic English with hesitancy and difficulty.

The student understands parts of lessons and simple directions.

The student is at a pre-emergent or emergent level of reading and writing in English, significantly below grade level.

Level 3 – Intermediate:

The student understands and speaks conversational and academic English with decreasing hesitancy and difficulty.

The student is post-emergent, developing reading comprehension and writing skills in English.

The student's English literacy skills allow the student to demonstrate academic knowledge in content areas with assistance.

Level 4 – Advanced Intermediate:

The student understands and speaks conversational English without apparent difficulty, but understands and speaks academic English with some hesitancy.

The student continues to acquire reading and writing skills in content areas needed to achieve grade level expectations with assistance.

Level 5 – Advanced:

The student understands and speaks conversational and academic English well.

The student is near proficient in reading, writing, and content area skills needed to meet grade level expectations.

The student requires occasional support.

Full English Proficiency Levels

Level 6 – Formerly LEP/Now Fully English Proficient:

The student was formerly limited-English proficient and is now fully English proficient.

The student reads, writes, speaks and comprehends English within academic classroom settings.

Level 7 – Fully English Proficient/Never Limited-English Proficient

Appendix B

Recommended Tests for Speech and Language Evaluation—Spanish Emphasis

These recommendations are made based on the professional experience of the work group consisting of" Anne Martin, Malena Otalera, Stacy Ko Sondag, bilingual speech-language pathologists respectively from Green Bay, Madison and Milwaukee. This list should not be considered to be all-inclusive.

Speech

Assessment of Phonological Processes Spanish (APPS): Los Amigos Research Associates, 1986. Some items obsolete or difficult to find (i.e. disco/record), some items specific to dialect (ie. vestido/dress - Mexico). Important to take dialectical differences into consideration when interpreting results

Spanish Articulation Measures: Academic Communication Associates, 1987

Spanish Language Assessment Procedures: A Communication Skills Inventory: Academic Communication Associates, 1989. Articulation Form assesses single word production, blends and sentences

Language

Bilingual Language Proficiency Questionnaire: Academic Communication Associates. Good parental interview tool to examine use of English and Spanish. Gives insight into language dominance as well as language use (ie. experiences, thinking/reasoning skills)

Brigance Assessment of Basic Skills - Spanish Edition: Curriculum Associates, Inc., 1984. K - 6th grade. Designed to indicate language dominance and to test for English oral language proficiency. Use of some subtests is helpful, but complete administration is cumbersome. Listening subtests provide good descriptive information.

Comprehensive Evaluation of Language Functioning 3 - Spanish: The Psychological Corporation, 1997, 6-0 to 21-11. Global language measure standardized on a Spanish speaking population within the United States. Scores sometimes seem inflated. Provides worthwhile information.

Dos Amigos Verbal Language Scales: United Educational Services Inc., 1973-1974, 5-0 to 13-5. Designed to assess the level of language development in both Spanish and English. Requires students to provide opposites to orally presented vocabulary. Task is completed in both languages and provides language dominance information.

Preschool Language Assessment Instrument - Spanish Language Edition: The Psychological Corporation, 1978,3-0 to 5-11. Designed to assess young children's skills in coping with the language demands of the teaching situations. Not standardized on a Spanish speaking population.

Preschool Language Scale 3 - Spanish edition: The Psychological Corporation, 1992, birth to 6-11. Provides a global language score for children, but not standardized on a Spanish speaking population. Provides good descriptive information.

Spanish Structured Photographic Elicitation Language Test P: Janelle Publications, 1989, 3-0 to 5-11. Assessment of the monolingual or bilingual child's generation of specific morphological and syntactical structures. Nice photographs. Some test prompts do not elicit the desired response from the child. Provides descriptive information only.

Spanish Structured Photographic Elicitation Language Test II: Janelle Publications, 1989, 4-0 to 9-5. Assessment of monolingual or bilingual child's generation

of specific morphological and syntactical structures.

Spanish Test for Assessing Morphological Production: Academic Communication Associates, 1991, 5-0 to 11-0. Assessment of Spanish language morphemes and their allomorphic variations using a sentence-completion task.

Woodcock-Munoz Language Survey - Spanish: Riverside Publishing Company, 1993, 4-0 to adult. Designed for measuring cognitive academic language proficiencies. An academic measure with four subtests: Picture Vocabulary, Verbal Analogies, Letter and Word Identification and Dictation. The combined score from the first two subtests provides a Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALF) level.

Other Available Tests

Bilingual Syntax Measure: The Psychological Corporation, 1980. Designed to measure second language oral proficiency with respect to syntactic structures in English and Spanish. Informal language sampling provides similar results

Expressive One Word Picture Vocabulary Test - Spanish: Academic Therapy Publications. Outdated, not normed on a Spanish speaking population, pictures not culturally appropriate.

James Language Dominance Test: Receptive and expressive vocabulary only, black and white pictures.

Prueba del Desarrollo Inicial del Lenguaje: Pro-Ed. Black and white pictures, difficult to administer.

Pruebas de Expresi6n Oral y Percepci6n de la Lengua Espanola: Kit Carson School, Hawthorne, CA. Outdated, but provides good language information.

Receptive One Word Picture Vocabulary Test - Spanish: Academic Therapy Publications. Outdated, not normed on a Spanish speaking population.

Test de Vocabulario en Imagenes Peabody: American Guidance Services. Spanish version of the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test. Caution must be used when interpreting the results of this test as it was standardized on Spanish speaking children in Mexico and Puerto Rico, not children in the United States. Pictures are black and white and not culturally sensitive.

Commonly Used English as a Second Language Tests:

Language Assessment Scales: CTB/McGraw Hill
Idea Proficiency Test
Bilingual Verbal Abilities Test
Woodcock-Munoz Language Survey

Appendix C

Translators and Interpreters

Most people use the terms interpreter and translator interchangeable; however, interpretation refers to oral communication and translation refers to written communication. Both interpreters and translators convert a message from one language to another.

The primary function of an interpreter is to make it possible for all those involved in an exchange of information to understand one another, despite language and cultural differences. The interpreter facilitates communication. A competent, knowledgeable interpreter is able to establish more direct communication, build trust, and reduce the possibility of the transmission of misinformation.

Therefore, the use of an interpreter who speaks the student's first language is crucial to the special education process when assessing students whose first language is not English. This also ensures that appropriate and legal methods have been followed throughout the assessment process and the risk of bias has been minimized as much as possible.

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) states that a school district must "take whatever action is necessary to insure that the parent understand the proceedings at a meeting, including arranging for an interpreter for parents who are deaf or whose native language is other than English." (34 CFR 300.345). Because very few speech and language pathologists are qualified to provide a true bilingual assessment, they must rely on qualified and trained personnel to assist in the process.

It is best to choose an interpreter who is familiar with the process of educational assessment. If the interpreter has not received training, special education personnel must take the responsibility of training the person selected. The training must include the purpose of the process, the tasks involved, and expectations about the information to be gathered. Interpreters are expected to have

- the oral language proficiency and fluency to serve effectively in a variety of roles and to adjust to different levels of language use.
- the ability to relate to children from the particular cultural group with which they will be working.
- the ability to maintain confidentiality of school records and respect the rights of parents and students involved.

Ideally, interpreters should be able to read and write fluently in both languages. This allows them to supply parents with written communications, telephone parents to schedule meetings, and participate at M-team and other parent meetings with school personnel.

The five types of interpretation and translation are:

- consecutive interpretation: An interpreter listens to the message in the first language (L1), pauses for a moment, then converts the message into the second language (L2). Speakers need to keep sentences and information short and meaningful. This type of interpretation is usually used for parent conferences and testing situations.
- simultaneous interpretation: The interpreter gives an immediate interpretation of the message. Longer units of information must be recalled and synonyms used if applicable. This is very difficult and usually requires much training. United Nations' interpreters would be an example of this type of interpreter.
- whispered interpretation: During this event, the interpreter would sit beside the speaker and whisper interpretations as the meeting proceeds.

- prepared translation: Prior to the situation, the interpreter or translator is given time to review the material and prepare a written translation. Words can be clarified and questions asked ahead of the actual event.
- sight translation: A written translation is done at the time of the event.

In the educational setting, consecutive translation is most commonly used, although it is possible that a prepared translation may be necessary prior to a multidisciplinary team (M-team) and/or individualized educational program (IEP) meeting.

Training Interpreters and Translators

An interpreter who has received appropriate training in special education assessment processes and procedures can contribute much to an evaluation. The speech and language pathologist often is responsible for training an interpreter because the language component of the evaluation is such a vital link to the child's overall functioning.

Many English educational terms, especially special education terms, do not exist in other languages. The interpreter should be familiar with these terms and should not change the meaning of these terms during testing or conferences.

An interpreter training program should include

- knowledge of the terminology used in education and in assessment.
- knowledge of school personnel and their various roles within the school to help encourage mutual trust between school and family.
- information about remaining objective during interpretative exchanges, along with a sensitivity toward parents and students' rights and emotions.
- information about imparting cultural information to other professionals in order to help them learn more about the child's background.
- an understanding of the reasons for evaluation, knowledge of expectations, and rationale for tests used. This enables the interpreter to understand the procedures as well as to explain to a student the tasks being asked.
- knowledge of the laws, legal and ethical implications, and issues pertaining to the special education process.
- training in the multidisciplinary team (M-team) process, including roles and expectations, and training in the importance of establishing rapport with the student.
- training in test administration procedures (for example, avoidance of prompting or commenting on the students' responses and stating questions exactly as possible within the limits imposed by the fact that some words are not translatable from one language to another).
- training to avoid giving non-verbal cues (for example, accompanying a question or statement with a gesture).
- training in the importance of the impact that non-verbal behaviors have on communication and the need to objectively and precisely report these behaviors.

Working with an Interpreter

Prior to assessment, the speech and language pathologist should:

- meet with the interpreter to discuss the nature of the assessment or conference so that both are aware of what is to be discussed.
- make a list of terms available to the interpreter and address any questions the interpreter may have.
- advise the interpreter of the importance of retaining the meaning of what is said

and of not imposing his or her opinions or judgment into the communicative exchange. Remind the interpreter of the need for confidentiality.

During the assessment, the speech and language pathologist should:

- keep statements brief-two to three sentences are enough at one time for an interpreter to remember and interpret.
- look at the parents or student, not at the interpreter. This interpreter is a vehicle for transmitting information-the parents and student are the people receiving the information. The SLP should never say, "Tell them." The SLP should tell them and the interpreter will interpret.
- have the interpreter sit beside the person who will do most of the talking during the exchange.
- speak normally, avoid "baby talk" but also avoid use of professional jargon that is difficult to interpret and will carry little meaning to the parents.
- never have a child interpret for his parents. This places the child in a very awkward position and could have negative cultural implications.
- be culturally sensitive and be aware that certain pressures may be placed upon the interpreter.

After the assessment, the speech and language pathologist should

- discuss what took place.
- ask the interpreter for subjective feedback. This feedback does not replace clinical judgment.
- include in the assessment report the use of the interpreter and his or her name.

For the interpreter

What are interpreters and translators? An interpreter or translator may speak, read, and write two or more languages and is able to convey the meaning of a conversation or dialog or written material from one language to another. The following guidelines provide a framework for interpreters and translators.

- Try to speak with the parents, guardians, and student before an assessment or conference to determine that the dialects are the same. If the interpreter or translator is familiar with the family, this may not be necessary.
- Explain to the student and family that during the assessment or conference the interpreter or translator is translating information even though at other times the interpreter or translator may be a friend or advocate.
- Discuss areas of concern to be covered at the meeting and agree upon terms to be communicated. This will avoid "inventing" terms on the spot.
- The interpreter or translator should sit beside the person who will do most of the talking at the meeting.
- One to three sentences should be the maximum before translation. The interpreter or translator may not remember an important point if too much is said at one time. The interpreter or translator should request clarification if he or she is confused.
- The interpreter or translator is not an editor. Everything that is said at an assessment or conference by parents, staff members, or the student must be translated. The interpreter or translator should use language that is most readily understood by the listener. The interpreter or translator should not counsel, advise, or add personal opinions.
- All information discussed at any school-related meeting is confidential. School-

related information may be shared only among professionals working directly with students or the students' families.

Resources

Council for Exceptional Children. *Education of Culturally and Linguistically Different Exceptional Children.* Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, 1984.

Diaz, J. *The Process and Procedures for Identifying Exceptional Language Minority Children.* College Station: Pennsylvania State University, 1988.

Eau Claire School District. *Guidelines for Working with a Translator:* Eau Claire, WI: Eau Claire School District, 1992.

Madison Metropolitan School District. *Guidelines for Using a Foreign Language Translator.* Madison, WI: Madison Metropolitan School District, LEP Programs, working copy.

■ **Appendix D**

Test Evaluation Form

Title of Test:

Author:

Publisher:

Date of Publication:

DIRECTIONS: Evaluate the test in each of the areas below using the following scoring system.

G = Good F = Fair P = Poor NI = No Information NA= Not Applicable

I. PURPOSES OF THE TEST

_____A. The purposes of the test are described adequately in the test manual.

_____B. The purposes of the test are appropriate for the intended local uses of the instrument.

Comments:

II. CONSTRUCTION OF THE TEST

_____A. Test was developed based on a contemporary theoretical model of speech-language development and reflects the findings of recent research.

_____B. Procedures used in developing test content (e.g. selection and field-testing of test items) were adequate.

Comments:

III. PROCEDURES

A. Procedures for test administration:

_____1. Described adequately in the test manual.

_____2. Appropriate for the local population.

B. Procedures for scoring the test:

_____1. Described adequately in the test manual.

_____2. Appropriate for the local population.

C. Procedures for test interpretation:

_____1. Described adequately in the test manual.

_____2. Appropriate for the local population.

Comments:

IV. LINGUISTIC APPROPRIATENESS OF THE TEST

_____A. Directions presented to the child are written in the dialect used by the local population.

_____B. Test items are written in the dialect used by the local population.

Comments:

V. CULTURAL APPROPRIATENESS OF THE TEST

_____A. Types of tasks that the child is asked to perform are culturally appropriate for the local population.

_____B. Content of test items is culturally appropriate for the local population.

_____C. Visual stimuli (e.g. stimulus pictures used on the test) are culturally appropriate for the local population.

Comments:

VI. ADEQUACY OF NORMS

_____A. Procedures for selection of the standardization sample are described in detail.

_____B. Standardization sample is an appropriate comparison group for the local population in terms of:

_____ 1. Age
_____ 2. Ethnic background
_____ 3. Place of birth
_____ 4. Community of current residence
_____ 5. Length of residency in the United States
_____ 6. Socioeconomic level
_____ 7. Language classification (e.g. limited English proficient)
_____ 8. Language most often used by child at home
_____ 9. Language most often used by child at school
_____ 10. Type of language program provided in school setting (e.g. bilingual education)

Comments:

VII. ADEQUACY OF TEST RELIABILITY DATA

_____A. Test-retest reliability

_____B. Alternate form reliability

_____C. Split-half or internal consistency

Comments:

VIII. ADEQUACY OF TEST VALIDITY DATA

_____A. Face validity

_____B. Content validity

_____C. Construct validity

_____D. Concurrent validity

_____E. Predictive validity

Comments:

■ Appendix E

Checklist for Potential Discrimination of an Assessment Instrument

(Reprinted with permission from "Culturally Valid Testing: A Proactive Approach" by Orlando L. Taylor and Kay T. Payne in *Topics of Language Disorders*, June 1983.)

1. Do I know the specific purpose for which this test was designed?

2. Has the test been validated for this purpose?

3. Are any limitations of the test described in the manual?

4. Do I know the specific information about the group on whom the test was standardized (sociocultural, sex, age, etc.)?

5. Are the characteristics of the student being tested comparable to those in the standardization sample?

6. Does the test manual or research literature (or my own experience) indicate any differences in test performance across cultural groups?

7. Do test items take into account differences in values or adaptive behaviors?

8. Does the test use vocabulary that is cultural, regional, colloquial, or archaic?

9. Does the test rely heavily on receptive and expressive standard English language to mea sure abilities other than language?

10. Is an equivalent form of the test available in any other language?

11. Am I aware of what the test demands of (or assumes about) the students in terms of:

- reading level of questions or directions;
- speech of response;
- style of problem solving;
- "test-takin" behaviors; and
- format?

12. Will students with specific physical or sensory disabilities be penalized by this test or by certain items?

13. Has an item-by-item analysis been made of the test from the framework of the linguistic and communicative features of the group for which it is to be used?

■ Appendix F

Language Sample Analysis in English of Native Spanish-Speaking Children

Background Information:

Because of the inherent cultural bias that currently exists within most formal measures of expressive language, Language Sample Analysis (LSA) remains one of the most comprehensive and accurate methods of assessing expressive language skills in bilingual children.

LSA measures language proficiency in spontaneous, functional contexts. It is a valuable tool for documenting current language status in English or Spanish as well as documenting the child's linguistic change over time. Assessment of functional oral language is one of the best ways to establish meaningful child-centered intervention strategies to improve the communicative competency of the bilingual child

Differentiation of a language disorder from a language difference is a critical component of a bilingual language evaluation. A comprehensive evaluation will determine whether a child has disabilities or delays in his or her native language. LSA, data from formal measures (administered in the child's native language), and an in-depth parent interview are essential components of a comprehensive bilingual language evaluation. Of great importance is information from the family about the child's time of exposure and level of exposure to English. This information will assist the SLP when interpreting the results of the LSA.

Language samples can be obtained from conversational or narrative contexts and both will provide the examiner with valuable diagnostic information regarding expressive abilities. The conversational context provides access to the child's ability to share information about objects, actions, and relationships and to ask and answer questions. It also provides information about the child's ability to initiate and change topics, repair misunderstandings and other discourse and pragmatic skills.

The open format of conversational sampling may allow for the production of more complex syntax. It also allows the examiner to lead the child into topic areas where specific vocabulary might be used or provide the opportunity to talk about past and future events.

In contrast, the narrative sampling context is a more controlled sampling condition. Children older than four years of age can be expected to produce narratives. Narrative samples are a valuable tool in the assessment of bilingual children because they allow clinician to make a comparison of the child's performance in their native language to their English use when relating the same story or event.

Vocabulary use, for example, can be evaluated in each language for the same story content. Obviously, this comparison should only be made when the sampling conditions are the same across the two samples.

The following observations about native Spanish bilingual children learning English are presented to assist speech/language pathologists in their evaluation of language skills in each language. This information has been taken from current research or has been extracted from multiple conversational and narrative language samples from native Spanish bilingual children.

Transcription Key Points:

Language Sample Analysis requires the child's productions to be recorded and transcribed verbatim. It is important in a bilingual evaluation of native Spanish speakers to mark code switching. Code switching, or reverting to the native language within

utterances or within samples, is frequently seen in those children more recently exposed to English. Marking code switches using an end of the utterance code allows easy identification of those switches across utterances within a transcript. Examples follow:

And the frog, como se dice le mayar en ingles *[C]?
Is this the pase aqui [C]?
The boy and the dog was chupando [C].

These examples provide the examiner with the opportunity to analyze words and/or topics in English for which the child is not yet proficient or for which he or she requires direct instruction. Coding specific words for ethnic dialect can be useful when the interpretation of those results is done by someone who is fluent in the dialect of that child.

The transcription of samples from native Spanish children who speak in English with heavy accents can present challenges with regard to intelligibility. It behooves the transcriber to listen to the entire language sample at least one time prior to transcription. Those words that may once have been perceived as unintelligible are often repeatedly used by the child or glossed by the examiner within a sample and can be contextually understood once the story has been told in its entirety. To avoid penalizing the child with a heavy accent, it is best to become familiar with their pattern of speech, thus minimizing marking occurrences of unintelligibility.

Utterance segmentation of native Spanish speakers differs from native English speakers due to unique intonation patterns in Spanish. Falling contour, which usually denotes the end of an utterance in English, isn't always appropriately verbalized by the native Spanish speaker. Therefore, it is sometimes difficult to rely on Phonological Units for segmentation. Segmentation in Communication Units (C-units) is ideal for bilingual samples because it is grammatically driven and does not rely on intonation.

Highlights from Research of Bilingual Transcripts:

There are a variety of narrative sampling contexts available to the diagnostician when obtaining a language sample for analysis. Of interest to speech/language pathologists is the difference in performance seen in native Spanish-speaking children who produced a Story Retell vs. a Unique Story narrative.

Dr. Aquiles Iglesias (Iglesias, 2002) used Mercer Mayer's frog stories (wordless picture books) to obtain story narratives from native Spanish bilingual students. He found that a story retell task showed an increase in the students' MLU and an increase in the use of more complex syntax. It appears the students, having heard the story and having been provided the framework of the story, were more efficient in narration.

Also of interest are Dr. Iglesias' findings that students produced a more thorough, more detailed, and a more complete story retell (use of complex syntax, increased vocabulary, higher MLU) when narrating to an unfamiliar listener. Native Spanish bilingual children who feel their listener has prior knowledge of the story will provide only essential information to that listener when producing a story retell.

Preliminary work shows native Spanish-speaking children learning English as a second language appeared to produce more mazes (filled pauses, repetitions, or revisions) when searching for the proper vocabulary word or when attempting to formulate utterances (WI DPI, 1997). As the children's English competency increased, the frequency of mazes decreased as did the frequency of word level errors (pronoun use, locative use). However, an increase in the use of non-specific vocabulary (thing, stuff) was noted.

Younger children's narratives contained excessive use of the word "and" to begin an utterance. They appear to be treating the story as a list of events rather than a complex set of relationships among participants that change over time.

The younger children regularly restated a pronoun after stating its referent. Examples include: And the boy, he was looking for the dog. And Tom, he was laughing. The lips, they were all cut. The frog, he was laughing.

Errors in the use of locatives/prepositions were frequently seen. These word-level errors were used inconsistently within transcripts and may reflect a lack of mastery of these grammatical elements. Examples include: The boy put the little frog to**[EW:by] the big frog. Everybody was mad on[EW:at] him. And we play in[EW:on] the computer. And then when the uncle was in[EW:on] TV...

Pronoun errors were frequently noted across samples. Errors in both number and person were produced. Examples of pronoun errors of number and person include: When my little cousin came over they[EW:he] always... ...Hook took his feet and broke it[EW:them] in half. All of us closed his[EW:our] eyes. And the boy, it[EW:he] was mad at him.

Errors in gender were not seen. In the Spanish language all nouns are marked for gender. Possibly the native Spanish children have an inherent strength or heightened awareness of marking gender in English. This might explain why no examples of pronominal gender errors were found.

Conjugation of irregular verbs in English presents difficulties for many English learners whether they are bilingual or monolingual English learners. With great consistency the younger native Spanish-speaking children used the infinitive form of irregular verbs rather than attempting conjugation.

Examples include: Then the turtle and the boy and the dog get[EW:got] mad. The big frog throw[EW:threw] the little froggie. The boy say[EW:said], "Stay there..." And then he say[EW:said] it's only a monster. The boy opened the present and see[EW:saw]. But he still win[EW:won] the swimming... He took his umbrella and hold[EW:held] the fish... The sister left[EW:went] to another room.

The older children who attempted conjugation of irregular verbs often produced overgeneralization errors: Examples include: And the egg goed[EO:went] because... ...and the Powerpuffgirls getted[EO:got] home. ...They took his tools and they hadded[EO:had] to...

Native English-speaking children make developmentally appropriate errors of agreement when using forms of the verb "to be." Examples of agreement errors include: Where are[EW:is] the frog? The dog and the boy is[EW:are] going to the park. The two is[EW:are] in the water. And they was[EW:were] four now. In contrast, Spanish-LEP children not only produce errors of agreement using the verb "to be" but also produce word-choice errors of "to be." Examples of word-choice errors include: The frog in the house (omitted "is"). The boy is[EW:says], "I'm sorry." And the bees is[EW:have] got him.

Summary:

When evaluating the language skills of native Spanish bilingual children LSA is an effective tool. Its use is essential for the differential diagnosis of language difference verses a language disorder. The evaluators of bilingual Spanish children should be aware of the transcription issues relevant to native Spanish speakers such as code switching, the effect of accent on intelligibility, and utterance segmentation. General patterns of language difference have been noted from preliminary work on transcripts

of bilingual Spanish speakers. These differences include increased mazes, non-specific vocabulary, and use of the word "and' to begin utterances. Also noted were word errors of locatives/prepositions, pronouns, irregular verbs, and overgeneralizations. Knowledge of these differences benefits the clinician using LSA when making the diagnosis of language impairment in a bilingual Spanish speaker.

*[C] is a transcription code marking the occurrence of a code switch
**[EW] is a transcription code meaning error at the word level

References:

Iglesias, Aquiles. "Effect of Narrative Elicitation Method on the Language Production of Latino Children." PowerPoint Presentation at SRCLD. Madison, WI. July 2002.

Miller, J.F. Bilingual Language Project. Madison, WI: University of Wisconsin-Madison Department of Communicative Disorders, 2001-2006.

Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction. LCD Populations: African American and Hmong, 1997.

■ Appendix G

Classroom Observation Form

(Adapted from *Bilingual Special Education* by Leonard M. Baca and Hermes T. Cervantes. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children, 1988.)

Student name: _____ Date of observation: _____

School: _____ Grade: _____

Teacher name: _____ Observer: _____

Classroom Setting: (Include approximate number of students, seating, organization of classroom, time of day, etc.)

Specific Activity:

Management/Instructional Techniques of Teacher: (Include use of positive or negative reinforcement, verbal and non-verbal cues, teacher-child interactions, materials presented, use of questions, types of directions, etc.)

Student's Behavior with Independent Seat Work: (Include attending to task, amount of work completed, comparison to peers, need for assistance, etc.)

Student's Behavior in Groups: (Include group size, types of interactions between student and other group members, etc.)

Student's Interactions with Peers in Classroom Setting: (Include how conversations are initiated, by whom, responses of student, etc.)

Additional Comments:

Does the teacher believe that the student's behavior during the observation period was typical of his or her everyday performance?

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■ Appendix H

Classroom Teacher Questions for Self-evaluation Prior to Making a Referral

These questions may assist the classroom teacher to increase awareness of cultural differences in order to provide appropriate information in deciding prior to making a referral to the IEP team.

1. How is my background and values similar to and different from that of the student?

2. Am I comfortable working with this student? Can I assess this student fairly?

3. Have I examined this student in as many environments as possible (individual, large, small group, play, and home)?

4. Have I examined all of the available existing information and sought additional information concerning this student?

5a. Is it possible that general assumptions have been made about this student?

5b. Have I assumed the student has less ability because he may be less verbal than mainstream children? If so, provide examples.

6. Am I aware of non-school related variables that may affect this student's school performance? Are there health factor (sleep, nutrition), family issues (homelessness, divorce, death), or peer group pressures that should be considered?

7. Have I sought parental input about my concerns regarding this student?

Appendix I

Communication Skills Inventory for Bilingual Children

(Adapted from *Speech and Language Assessment for the Bilingual Handicapped* by L. Mattes and D. Omark. San Diego, CA: College Hill Press, 1984.)

This form can be completed by classroom teachers, speech/language pathologists, bilingual education teachers or aides, or English as a Second Language teachers. The responses should be interpreted in view of communication behaviors that are typical or appropriate for individuals from the student's culture.

Child's Name: _____ Date of Birth: _____

Child's First Language: _____ Child's Second Language: _____

Completed by: _____

Communicative Behavior	First Language	Second Language
Comments on own actions		
Comments on others' actions		
Describes experiences accurately		
Describes events sequentially		
Attends to the speaker		
Follows directions		
Initiates interactions		
Takes turns during conversation		
Maintains topic		
Answers questions		
Requests attention		
Requests information		
Requests action		
Requests clarification		
Expresses needs		
Expresses feelings		
Describes plans		
Supports viewpoints		
Describes solutions		
Expresses imagination		

■ **Appendix J**

Consultation Team Questionnaire

	Yes	No
The school environment appears to be culturally sensitive.		
Culturally and linguistically diverse families are involved in the school.		
The classroom appears to reflect a culturally sensitive environment.		
Large class size affects whether the teacher can individualize instruction or try alternative methods of instruction.		
The language of instruction matches the student's (complexity, dominant language, dialect, and so forth).		
The teacher refers students from this culture appropriately.		
Instruction provides a. Varied methods of instruction b. Modified curriculum c. Varied management		
Modifications were made to meet the needs of the student.		
The curriculum matches the level of instruction needed by the child.		
The curriculum does not match the instructional level of the student, but modifications can be made.		
Someone from the school or district has had contact with the family.		
A translator who speaks the child's native language has been located.		
There is a professional on the team who can speak to the is sues of linguistic and cultural differences (for example, a cultural representative).		

■ **Appendix K**

Records Review Form

(Adapted from *A Resource Handbook for the Assessment and Identification of LEP Students with Special Education Needs.* White Bear Lake, MN: Minnesota Services Center, 1987.)

School Experience

Country outside of the United States (circle each grade completed)

K 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

United States

K 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12

Retained YES NO

Attendance GOOD POOR UNKNOWN

Number of Days Absent:_____

Other schools attended outside of local school district:_____

Last school attended:_____

Have records been obtained from former school district:____YES____NO

Has the child been advanced a grade:____YES____NO

When and at what grade?_____

Program Placements (circle all that apply)

Regular Education	PreK	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Bilingual Education	PreK	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Chapter 1	PreK	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Special Education	PreK	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Disability_____	PreK	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Disability_____	PreK	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Disability_____	PreK	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Social Work	PreK	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Counseling	PreK	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
Other _____	PreK	K	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12

Previous Testing and/or Screening Data:

Date:_____Test:_____Results:_____

Date:_____Test:_____Results:_____

Date:_____Test:_____Results:_____

Date:_____Test:_____Results:_____

■ **Appendix L**

Teacher Interview for Consultation Team

Child's Name: _____ Teacher's Name: _____

Interviewed by: _____

	Yes	No
Is the child's functioning consistent across settings and skills? Comments:		
Have samples of academic performance been collected? (Attach) Comments:		
Is the child's functioning showing improvement over time? Comments:		
Has the child's academic performance been consistent from year to year? Comments:		
Is there evidence in records that performance was negatively or positively affected by classroom placement or teacher? Comments:		
Are past test scores consistent with past class performance? Comments:		
Are you familiar with past test instruments used to evaluate the child? Can the prior test scores be interpreted reliably? Comments:		
Is there evidence of a disability other than the referral problem that may result in a language comprehension problem? Comments:		
Has the child been receiving ESL services? Comments:		
Has information been obtained from former school districts? Comments:		
Has the child been advanced a grade? When? What grade? Comments:		
Has the child been retained? When? What grade? Comments:		
Does the child understand in English: A. Words B. Phrases C. Sentences D. Conversations Comments:		

	Yes	No
Does the child converse in another language? Another dialect? Comments:		
Is the child difficult to understand In English? In his or her native language? C omments:		
Does the child have difficulty communicating with peers A. In English? B. In his or her native language? Comments:		
Can the child describe events sequentially? Comments:		
Does the child demonstrate appropriate listeningbehavior? Comments:		
Is the child able to follow oral directions presented in the classroom? Comments:		
Does the child stop and search for words? Comments:		
Does the child code switch in conversation? Comments:		
Is the child's syntax/word order appropriate? Comments:		
Is there a difference between the child's oral work and written work? Comments:		
What are the child's strengths? Comments:		
What are the child's greatest weaknesses at this time? Comments:		
How does the student compare to peers of the same cultural background? Comments:		
Is the child able to stay on task? Comments:		
Does the child verbally interact in classroom discussions? Comments:		
Does the child verbally interact with peers in informal activities? Comments:		

■ **Appendix M**

Sample Interview Form–English

Educators should use this form when interviewing parents or caregivers concerning a student's home functioning. "I'm asking these questions to get to know you".

Student's name_____Birthdate_____Age_____

Date_____ American Indian tribal status: _____

Ethnic Code_____ Country of Origin_____

Address_____

Telephone_____School_____

Parents/Guardians_____

1. Tell me about (name).

2. What ways does your child use to express himself/herself? (e.g. speech, gesture, dance, music, art, writing)

3. Describe for me what you remember when (name) was beginning to talk. Was (his or her) speech easy to understand?

4. When (name) talked, did (his or her) speech sound like the other children in the family? If not, describe how it was different.

5. Did (name) sound like the children in the neighborhood? If not, describe how it was different.

6. Describe the way (name) talked at first and how (name) talks now.

7. Has (name) always lived with you? Have you always been the primary care taker? Does (name) sound more like you or others that care for (him or her)?

8. How does your child talk to you? How does he share information? Describe a common event.

9. Does your child play and talk to other children? Do they understand your child?

10. Tell me about the best time for talking at home. Who talks with (name) the most at home?

11. What language do you speak at home? What language do you encourage?

■ **Apéndice N**

Ejemplo de Formulario de Entrevistas

Los maestros pueden usar este formulario cuando hagan una entrevista a los padres de familia o guardianes sobre el comportamiento del niño en su hogar.
"Estas preguntas son para conocerles mejor."

Fecha: Étnica Indios Americanos: "¿Qué comunidad?

Nombre del estudiante: Fecha de nacimiento:

Edad:

Dirección:

Número de teléfono Escuela:

Nombre de los Padres de familia/Guardianes:

1. Háblame sobre _____ (nombre) del niño/a.
2. ¿De que manera se comunica su niño/a? (Ej: Habla, hace gestos, baila, escucha la música, el arte, escribe)
3. Por favor, descríbame lo que recueda cuando su niño/a estaba empezando hablar. ¿Era facíl de entender a su niño/a?
4. Cuando _____(nombre) habló, era similar el habla de su niño comparado con el habla de sus otros niños? Si es no, descríbame lo que era diferente.
5. ¿Habló su niño/a como otros niños del barrio? Si es no, descríbame lo que era diferente.
6. Por favor, descríbame como hablaba _____(nombre) cuando empezó comparado con su habla de ahora.
7. ¿Siempre ha vivido _____ (nombre) con Ustedes? ¿Siempre han sido Uds. las personas del cuidado principal de su niño/a? ¿Habla su niño/a como Usted o habla como otra gente que le cuida?
8. ¿Comó habla su niño/a con Usted? ¿Como comunica alguna información?
9. Por favor, describa un ocasión común.
10. ¿Juega y habla su niño/a con otros niños?
11. Dígame a que hora del día es el mejor momento que habla. ¿Quién habla más con su niño/a en el hogar?
12. ¿Cuales son los idiomas que se hablan en el hogar? ¿Cuál idioma usan con más frequencia?

■ **Appendix O**

Background Information for Students with Limited English Proficiency

Date:_____

Person completing form:

Information obtained from:

Other people present:

1. Identifying information

Name of child: Sex: Male Female

Date of birth: Place of birth:

Address:

Phone:

Parents (or other person's with whom student lives-relationship):

Cultural group (Hmong, Laotian, etc.):

Primary language spoken at home:

Arrival in United States:

Length of time in refugee camp (if applicable):

Person to contact for school-related matters:

How long has family lived in local community:

Father's occupation:

Last grade of school attended:

Mother's occupation:

Last grade of school attended:

What language/languages do parents speak, understand, read, write?

Siblings:

Name	Age	Grade	Relevant Information

Do or did any members of your immediate or extended family have learning, speech, or hearing difficulties that may affect the child's school experience? _____yes _____no

If yes, explain:

2. **Developmental History** (If known)
Pregnancy with this child: Normal_____Problems_____
If problems, explain:

Length of pregnancy:_____months

Length of active labor was:_____under 3 hours _____3 to 24 hours _____over 24 hours

Was infant premature: _____yes _____no
If so, how early?

Which word best describes your child's prenatal activity level?
_____Quiet _____Active _____Overactive

Birth weight: _____pounds _____ounces

Type of delivery: _____Natural _____Caesarean Section

Was infant born: _____head first _____feet first _____breech

Was it necessary to give the infant oxygen? _____yes _____no
If so, for how long?

Did infant require any special treatments (for example, blood transfusion, x-ray, EEG)?
If so, explain:

Did infant appear yellow (jaundiced): _____yes _____no

Did infant have breathing difficulties: _____yes _____no

Did infant have:
_____Convulsions or twitching _____Prolonged vomiting
_____Feeding difficulty _____Prolonged high fever
_____Prolonged irritability
If yes, to any questions, please explain:

Was infant slow in responding: _____ yes _____ no

As an infant this baby was: _____overactive _____quiet _____irritable _____average

Did infant: ____sleep well ____ sleep very little ____never napped ____sleep restlessly

Did infant have feeding difficulties? _____yes _____no
If yes, explain:

Were patterns similar to your other children? _____yes _____no
If no, explain:

At what age did child: _____sit alone _____crawl _____walk by him/herself
_____feed him/herslf _____say first words _____begin to put 2 and 3 words together

Is child's speech easily understood by family members? _____ yes _____ no
by others? _____ yes _____no
If no, explain:

Compare his/her development to your other children:

3. Medical History
Did child suffer any serious illnesses? _____yes _____no
If yes, explain:

Was child ever hospitalized? _____yes _____no
If yes, explain:
For how long? _____ At what age? _____

Did child ever have high fevers? _____yes _____no
If yes, how long?
Explain:

Did child ever experience convulsions? _____yes _____no
If yes, with high fever: _____yes _____no
with accident: _____yes _____no _____no apparent cause

Did child have any accidents? _____yes _____no
Been unconscious: _____yes _____no
If yes, describe:

Is child on any type of medications? _____yes _____no
If yes, for what reason:
List drug, dosage, and problems, if any:

Has child had any hearing difficulties? _____yes _____no
If yes, describe:

Has child had any ear infections? _____yes _____no
If yes, please indicate when they occurred, number, length of time and treatments

Has child ever had a hearing evaluation? _____yes _____no
If so, where and what were the results?

Has child had any visual problems? _____yes _____no
If yes, explain:

Has child had a vision test? _____yes _____no
If yes, when, where and what were the results?

Does child wear glasses? _____yes _____no

What doctors and agencies have worked with this child?
Agency/person/service phone city state

4. Speech and Language
What language did your child learn when he/she first began to talk?

Is your child difficult to understand in his/her native (first) language?
Explain:

Do you feel your child understands what you say? _____yes _____no

What language does your child speak when he/she answers you?

What language(s) do parents speak to each other?

What language(s) do parents speak to the child?

What language(s) do the children use with each other?

What language does the child prefer to use when playing with friends?

Has child experienced some language loss in his/her first language _____yes _____no
If yes, explain:

What language is used in ceremony services (church or traditional ceremonies, funerals, births, weddings) if attended?

How much contact does the family have with the homeland? What kind of contact?

List any circumstances that would have deterred or influenced your child's development (for example, living in a refugee camp, numerous moves).

Social Development

Who takes care of the child after school
What language is used?

With whom does the child play?
_____older children
_____children the same age
_____adults
_____younger children
_____prefers to play alone

What are the child's favorite activities, games, toys, etc.?

What does the child do after school and on weekends?

Are stories read to the child? _____yes _____no
If yes, in what language?

Are stories told to the child? _____yes _____no
If yes, in what language?

Can child tell a story back to you? _____yes _____no

Does your child watch T.V.? _____yes _____no
How much time does your child watch T.V.?

What responsibilities does the child have at home?

In what cultural activities does the family participate?

■ Appendix P

Hearing Screening Considerations

It is critical for all students with speech and language delays to have their hearing screened. This is especially important for southeast Asian students who are learning English as a second language. Subjectively it is difficult to assess if a language delay is due to learning a second language, a language disorder, or possibly a hearing loss. It is difficult to solely use input of parents and family members who may indicate that their child receptively and expressively communicates in his or her native language. Even a mild to moderate hearing loss can be deceiving, and it may be difficult to determine if a child hears if he or she is turned when their name was called or seems to hear. This is especially important if the native language is a "vocal" (for example, Hmong or Spanish) language with most word understanding depending on lower frequency consonants and vowels. If this same child possesses a congenital high frequency hearing loss he or she most likely will prefer their native language and will have difficulty with the English language, which depends on high frequency phonemes to carry the understanding of words (Abreu, 1995). This is often deceiving to family members and school personnel.

There are an estimated 8 million children throughout North America who have some degree of hearing loss (Berg, 1986). This represents one in every six children (16 percent). A higher incidence of hearing loss has been noted in the southeast Asian population (Nsouli, 1995; Bylander, 1985; Buchanan, et al., 1993). Data gathered from the Wausau School District indicates that in a three-year time frame, approximately 30 percent of southeast Asian students have failed routine hearing screenings. This is significant because routine follow-up is difficult due to cultural views and lack of understanding of American medicine.

A community with a large southeast Asian population may also have a high incidence of amplification use (hearing aids, FM units, classroom amplification) due to refusal of surgical procedures to correct conductive hearing losses. Parents also may refuse hearing aid use at home due to cultural views.

The educational audiologist is a critical resource in all school districts, especially if there is a large southeast Asian population. The educational audiologist's role is essential in providing assessment, inservices to teachers regarding classroom recommendations and expectations, hearing aid monitoring and fitting of FM units (Code of Federal Regulations, Chapter 32,300.303; WI), acting as a liaison between the medical and educational environment, and so forth. The educational audiologist is the professional qualified by training and education to provide these services. The extent of the educational audiologist's involvement in working with southeast Asian students will vary depending upon the number of students enrolled in a school district and experience of others with providing needed screening and timely follow-up for these students.

A protocol such as the *Wisconsin Guide to Childhood Hearing Screening* is helpful to educational audiologists providing hearing screenings and follow-up. The following are other suggestions for providing hearing screenings for southeast Asian students.

- Otoscopic exam. This is essential in assessing cerumen build-up and/or eardrum abnormalities. Eardrums are often difficult to view due to dry or flaky cerumen.
- Tympanometry. Because a higher incidence of hearing loss exists in this population and follow-up is difficult, early detection and monitoring is important to ensure follow-up is provided quickly. Because many eardrums are difficult to view,

tympanometry can help determine any abnormalities, such as a perforation. In a three-year time frame in the Wausau School District, a large number of southeast Asian students presented with type A (limited mobility) tympanograms and normal pure tone sensitivity. It is important that these students are monitored and not over-referred.

- Pure tone testing. Conditioned play audiometry has been very successful in testing southeast Asian children younger than 5 years old. An interpreter is seldom used and accurate results are easily obtained. The time frame to condition a child to raise his or her hand often takes longer and results are not as reliable. If a child passes his or her pure tones, but fails the tympanograms, a recheck in four to six weeks is suggested. If a student fails, a translated letter should be sent home. The same day, an interpreter also should call home to inform the parents about the letter and what it means. The audiologist should instruct the parents to take the letter to their doctor. The family may need help with finding a physician, setting an appointment, and getting an interpreter.

Resources

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Instructions for Performing the Audiometric Pure-Tone Hearing Rescreening Test

(Reprinted with permission from *The Wisconsin Guide to Childhood Hearing Screening.* Madison, WI: Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction, 1993.)

Selecting the Test Environment

A quiet test environment is absolutely essential. A room is quiet enough if the test tones can be heard easily by a person with normal hearing. If the tester's hearing is not normal, locate a young adult with no history of hearing problems to listen to the test tones. Do not proceed with the rescreening if all the test tones cannot be heard easily. The room noise sources must be located and reduced or a quieter room must be found if the test tones cannot be heard easily.

Audiometer Performance Check

The audiometer should be set to a loudness of 60 HL and a frequency of 2,000 Hz and set to "normally on" to determine that the tones reaching both earphones are steady (no static or interruptions). This should be done while you wiggle the earphone wires of each earphone at both ends. If any interruption of the tone is heard, do not

proceed with the rescreening until the audiometer is repaired. Next, without changing the settings of the audiometer, move the ear selector switch back and forth between "left and right." The tone should be equally loud in both ears if the listener's hearing is normal and if the audiometer is working properly.

Instructions to the Child

The tester's instructions to the child should be simple and clear so that he or she knows exactly what is expected of him or her.

1. Explain that the tones will be soft and may be difficult to hear.
2. Sea:t the child facing 45 degrees away from the tester so that the tester can observe the child's reactions and so that the child cannot see the tester operating the audiometer.
3. Have the child place his or her hand on his or her knee while waiting for the tone.
4. Instruct the child to raise his or her hand every time he or she hears the tone, even if it is very soft and difficult to hear.
5. Instruct the child to raise his or her hand right away as soon he or she hears the tone.
6. Instruct the child to return his or her hand to his or her knee when the tone stops.
7. Be sure the child knows to which ear the tone will be presented.

When the Child is Ready for Screening

1. Expand the headband and place the red earphone on the right ear, the blue earphone on the left ear.
2. The tester should make certain that the opening in the center of the earphone is in direct line with the ear canal. Place the earphones on the child while facing him or her.
3. Adjust the earphones to the approximate size of the child's head before placing them in position. The headband should rest squarely in the center of the head.
4. Let the child know how he or she is doing. Praise him or her if he or she is doing well and reinstruct him or her if he or she is having difficulty with the task.

Demonstration Techniques

It may be necessary to demonstrate the test for some children who do not respond to the tones.

Pass/Fail and Referral Criteria

1. The frequencies of 1,000 Hz, 2,000 Hz, and 4,000 Hz should be used.
2. The audiometer loudness will be set to 20 dB HL for 1,000 and 2,000 Hz and 25 dB HL for 4,000.
3. The child must respond two out of three times to pass each frequency in each ear.
4. If the child passes at 1,000 or 2,000 Hz but fails at 4,000 Hz in either ear, then test 3,000 Hz at 20 dB HL in that ear.
5. Failure at 1,000 or 2,000 Hz in either ear is a rescreening failure. Failure at 4,000 Hz only in either or both ears is not a failure but will require a retest next year.
6. Failure at 3,000 AND 4,000 Hz in either or both ears is a rescreening failure.

Verifying the Failure

There are causes other than hearing loss for failure on the rescreening test. It is the tester's job to rule out these causes before accepting the failure. If a child fails any frequency in either ear.

1. Reposition the earphones and rescreen. The center of the earphone must be directly over the opening of the ear canal.
2. Increase the loudness of the tone failed to 60 dB HL to be sure the child understands the task and is paying attention. When it is clear that the child is paying

attention and under- stands the task, reduce the loudness to the screening level and retest. If the child does not understand or is not paying attention, proceed to number three below.

3. Reinstruct the child, and remind him or her that the tones are soft. If necessary, remove the earphones and repeat the demonstration activity. Be generous with your praise for correct responding.
4. If a child cannot learn the screening task and does not respond to any 60 dB sounds, report him or her to the person in charge at your hearing screening program.

Referrals

Parents of children who fail the rescreening test should be informed of the failure and should be encouraged to obtain medical and audiological evaluations for their children. It is important that hearing screening personnel seek the results of the medical and audiological evaluations. If the hearing loss does not resolve with medical treatment, the child's school should be made aware of the problem. Periodic rescreening of children referred for medical evaluations and treatment is important to document the resolution of temporary hearing losses and the persistence of other hearing losses.

■ Appendix Q

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Appendix R

Glossary–English

Academic Achievement: How well a student is learning in school. Adaptive Behavior: Ability to cooperate and work with others.

ADD/ADHD Attention Deficit Disorder/Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder: Difficulty paying attention.

Advisor: A person who helps you.

Alternative M-team Report: Report written by a person or persons of the M-team who do not agree with the findings of the rest of the M-team members.

Assessment and Evaluation: Information on the student from observation and testing. Autism: A medical condition in which an individual has difficulty communicating or relating to others.

Bilingual: A person who has skills in two languages, although not necessarily equal for both languages.

Bilingual Instruction: A program of instruction for children of limited English where there is instruction in English and in the child's native language.

Bilingualism:

Additive: A process by which an individual learns a second language after or while developing their first language.

Limited: Individual has social communication in the two languages, but does not have the academic skills in either language.

Proficient: Individual has native-like ability to understand, speak, read, and write in two languages.

Subtractive: Learning of the native language is interrupted and the individual has poor proficiency or complete loss of their native language.

Case Manager: When a student is referred for testing the case manager gets the people who did the testing, the parent/guardian, and others together to share information and discuss what is best for the student.

Classroom Observation: What has been seen in the classroom.

Chapter I: A program in which the teacher provides extra help in reading or math.

Code Switching: Changing from one language to the other during conversation.

Cognitive: Ability.

Cognitive Delay (CD): Students who learn at a slower rate than their peers.

Consent for Evaluation: Permission to test.

Decision Making Process: Decide what to do.

Delivery Model: How the help will be provided-in the classroom, in a different room, and so forth.

Director or Designee: Person who looks at the information and along with the placement group makes the formal decision where the student is to be placed.

Discontinuation of Support Services: The end of extra help because the student no longer needs it.

Due Process Hearing: A legal way to make sure that a child's educational needs are being met. Can be used by the parents or school.

Educational Outcome: The goal of where you hope the student will be.

Emotionally Disturbed (ED): Children who have a hard time following rules which makes it more difficult to learn in the classroom.

English as a Second Language (ESL): Program that teaches English to students whose native language is not English.

Exceptional Educational Need (EEN): The student has difficulty learning because of de- lays or difficulty with language, hearing, behavior, learning, or motor skills.

FES/Fluent English-speaking: English is adequate to function in a regular English speaking classroom.

Handicapping Condition: See EEN

Home Language: Language spoken at home, in contrast with another language used in other situations.

Immunization: Shots given to prevent disease.

Individual Education Plan (IEP): Developed by a team or committee to address the present level of performance by the student, annual goals, and short term objectives.

1.94: Immigration and Naturalization Service 1-94 alien registration card gives a legal "refugee" status to refugee arrivals and to those who have been in the U.S. a specified time.

Intervention Strategies: Different ways of teaching that are tried in order to give the student success.

Language:

Conversational: Language used to communicate socially.

Academic: Language skills needed for understanding and success in school. Language Dominance: The language used with most ease.

L1/First Language: The language learned first when acquiring language. L2/Second Language: The language learned second.

LD/Learning Disabilities: Individuals who have average ability but who have difficulty achieving in one or more of the major academic areas: i.e. math, reading, spelling. A learning disability teacher helps them with learning.

LEA: Local Education Agency (school districts)

Limited English Proficiency (LEP): Refers to individuals whose dominant language is not English and who have difficulty speaking, reading, writing, or understanding the English language.

Motor Skills:

Fine motor: ability to use the hand in school activities, for example, writing and cutting. Gross motor: ability to use arms and legs for activities like other children of their age.

M-team: A group of people who know the child or who may have done testing come together and try to come up with a plan to help make learning easier.

Multihandicapped: Children who have more than one handicap.

Native Language: The first language learned by the individual and/or used by the parents. Non-English Speaking (NES): Students who do not speak English and would have difficulty in a regular English classroom.

Notice of the Determination: Formal paper sent to the parent telling them what program their child is in or what the special program they may have completed.

Occupational Therapy: Special help for children who need extra help with activities involving cutting, writing. drawing, tying, etc.

Orthopedically Handicapped (OH): Limits an individual's physical mobility and may interfere with school attendance or learning to such an extent that special services, training, materials, or facilities are required.

Override that revocation: When a school district does not accept a decision for a parent/guardian to refuse testing or placement.

Parent consultation: Information given by the parent.

Physical Therapy: Special help for children who need help with activities involving big muscles, i.e. jumping, catching, etc.

Placement: Program offered for the child to help make their learning easier.

Placement justification: Tells why the child needs a different approach to learning.

P.L. 94.142: Federal law which says it is the state's responsibility to educate all handicapped children (3-21 years). Known as "The Education for all Handicapped Children's Act of 1975".

Previous Interventions: Extra help the child has had before. Prohibited: Forbidden or not allowed.

Revoke: Take away or take back.

Silent period: A time in which language is learned by listening.

Special Education: Classes in which children who have been found to have EENs receive help from different programs or people depending on their needs. They may receive help in one or more of the following programs:

S/L: Speech-language

CD: Cognitively disabled HI: Hearing impaired

LD: Learning disabled

ED: Emotionally disturbed

Specially Designed Physical Education: A special program for children not able to do activities in a regular gym class.

Speech-Language Program: Student has been evaluated and found to have difficulty learning their native language (understanding or using their language to communicate) which has been determined by an M-Team to interfere with their learning and/or social communication. The speech clinician helps children to understand or use the language necessary to be successful in the classroom or social situations.

Transitional Planning: Special planning for children to help them go to a higher level of education or a job.

Visually handicapped: Includes blind (total loss of vision or only minimal light perception), visually impaired (deviation in the structure or functioning of any part of parts of the eye), low vision (limitations in distance vision but may be able to see objects a few inches or feet away), visually limited (some visual limitations under some circumstances).

■ Appendix R

Glossary–Spanish

Academic Achievement: Como progresa académicamente un estudiante.

Adaptive Behavior: El habilidad de hacerse más y más independiente y llevarse bien con otros.

ADD/ADHD: Una desventaja en que un niño tiene dificultad en prestar atención.

Advisor: Una persona que le da aviso a un estudiante.

Alternative IEP team Report: un reporte escrito por los miembros del equipo del IEP quienes no están de acuerdo con la decisión de los otros miembros del equipo

Assessment and Evaluation: Información sobre un estudiante que estaba obtenido por observacion, entrevistas, o pruebas formales y informales.

Autism: Una condición medica en la cual un individuo tiene dificultad de comunicarse y relacionarse bien con otros.

Bilingual: Una persona que se puede comunicar en dos idiomas.

Bilingual Instruction: Es un programa educacional para estudiantes dominante en otro idioma donde reciben la educación en Ingles y en su idioma primario.

Bilingualism:

Additive: Cuando una persona adquiere el segundo idioma despues de o al mismo tiempo que el primero

Limited: Cuando una persona tiene las destrezas básicos de communicación social en los dos idiomas, pero no tiene las destrezas académicas necesarias en ninguno de los dos idiomas

Proficient: Cuando una persona tiene la habilidad de comprender, hablar, leer y escribir en los dos idiomas como un nativo

Subtractive: Cuando la adquisición del primer idioma ha sido interumpida y la persona pierde el idioma materno y tiene destrezas linguisticas mínimas

Case Manager: La persona en cargo de organizar los evaluadores, los padres de familia/guardianes, y otra gente significante para que reunirse, compartir información, y hacer una decision sobre el mejor manera de ofrecerle ayuda educacional al estudiante.

Classroom Observation: lo que se ha observado en el salón de clases

Chapter 1: un programa en el cual un maestro da ayuda adicional en lectura o matemáticas

Code Switching: cambiando de un idioma al otro durante una conversación

Cognitive: La habilidad de entender; como se usa la inteligencia.

Cognitive Delay: Una desventaja cognicitiva (Usualmente, eses ninos aprenden a un rato más despacio comparado con sus compañeros de la misma edad.)

Consent for Evaluation: Consentimiento o permiso para evaluar a un niño.

Decision Making Process: El proceso de decidir lo que se necesita hacer.

Delivery Model: Como se proprocionarán los servicios educacionales al estudiante. (Ej: en el salon de la educacion regular, en el salon de la educacion especial, en grupos pequeños, o individualmente.)

Director or Designee: Una persona quien considera las recomendaciones del equipo IEP y hace la decision formal sobre la colocación más apropriada para el estudiante.

Discontinuation of Support Services: La terminación de servicios extras cuando el niño no la necesita más.

Due Process Hearing: Un proceso legal para asegurar que las necesidades educativas del estudiante estan realizadas. Los padres o el colegio pueden iniciar este proceso

legal.

Educational Outcome: El nivel o las metas educacionales en que le gustarían que consigue/obtenga el estudiante.

Emotionally Disturbed: Niños quienes tienen dificultades siguiendo las reglas y eso le afecta la habilidad de aprender en la clase

English as a Second Language: inglés como segundo idioma

Fluent English Speaking: un programa en el cual enseñan a los estudiantes cuyo idioma materno no es el inglés

Hearing Impaired: Un programa en lo cual los niños reciben ayuda de una maestra especializada en impedimentos auditivos dependiendo del grado de audición.

Home Language: el idioma de la casa; contrario a otro idioma usado en diferentes situaciónes.

I-94: Tarjeta del departamento de inmigración que recibe cuando se llega a Los Estados Unidos (USA).

Immunization: vacunas que se dan para impedir enfermedades

Individual Education Plan (IEP): el plan individualizado de educación

Intervention Strategies: Diferentes formas de enseñanza usado para asegurarse el éxito académico del estudiante.

L1/First Language: el idioma natal.

L2/Second Language: El segundo idioma aprendido por el niño.

Language:

Conversational: el lenguaje usado para socializar

Academic: el lenguaje usado para entender y tener éxito en la escuela

Language Dominance: el idioma usado con más facilidad

Learning Disability: Desventaja en aprendizaje. Niños de habilidad normal, pero tienen dificultades académicas en un area o más de estos siguientes: matemáticas, lectura, o deletreo.

Limited English Proficiency (LEP): se refiere a personas cuyo primer idioma no es el inglés y quienes tienen dificultad en hablar, leer, escribir, o entender el inglés

Local Education Agency (LEA): la agencia local escolar (distrito escolar)

Motor Skills:

Fine Motor: Pequeños movimientos, especialmente del uso de las manos y los dedos.

Gross Motor: Movimientos grandes de varias partes del cuerpo.

Multi-handicapped: niños con más que una desventaja

Native Language: el idioma aprendido primero y/o el idioma que hablan los padres

Non-English Speaking (NES): los estudiantes que no hablan inglés y que tienen dificultades en la clase regular de inglés

Notice of Determination: los documentos mandado a los padres para informarles cuales servicios va a recibir su hijo o cuales servicios ya no necesita

Occupational Therapy: terapia ocupacional. Ayuda especial para niños quienes necesitan otra ayuda con actividades que requieren cortar, escribir, dibujar, amarrar, etc.

Orthopedically Handicapped (OH): Personas para quienes moverse es díficil y interfiere con la asistencia escolar o aprendizaje hasta un punto en que requiere servicios especiales, entrenamiento, materials, o ambiente.

Override that Revocation: cuando un distrito no acepta la decisión de un padre/guardián de rechazar la evaluacíon o la colocación

Parent Consultation: información dada por los padres

Physical Therapy: ayuda especial para los niños que necesitan ayuda con actividades

usando los músculos grandes, ej. saltar, cogerPlacement: Colocación- programa ofrecido para ayudar al niño a aprender más facilmente.

Previous Intervention: Ayuda extra que estaba ofrecido anteriormente al niño.

Re-evaluation: un estudiante está evaluado cada tres años o antes de los tres años para averigüar si necesita cambiar los servicios que recibe, por ejemplo, descontinuación o adición de servicios/ayuda

Referred: evaluación para encontrar formas de ayudar al niño con su aprendizaje

Silent Period: durante esta etapa el idioma está aprendido mayormente escuchándolo

Special Education: Clases en las cuales los niños que han sido identificados con desventajas reciben ayuda por medio de diferentes programas o personas dependiendo totalmente de sus necesidades. Los niños pueden recibir ayuda de uno o más de los siguientes areas:

S/L: Habla y lenguaje
CD: Desventajas cognicitivas
HI: Impedimentos auditivos
LD: Desventajas en aprendizaje
ED: Emocionalmente desviado

Specially Designed Physical Education: un programa especial para niños que no pueden participar en el programa regular de educación física

Speech and Language Program: el estudiante ha sido evaluado y el resultado indica que tiene una dificultad en aprender su idioma nativo (comprendiendo y usando el idioma para comunicarse). Esta decision fue tomada por el equipo que este le afecta el aprendizaje y/o la habilidad de comunicar.

Transitional Planning: Ayuda especial para estudiantes que alcancen un nivel más alto de educación o trabajo

Visually Handicapped: incluye ciego (el perdido total de vision o solamente la percepción minima de luz), impedimento visual (desviación de la estructura o funcionamiento de cualquier parte del ojo), vision baja (limitaciones de vision de larga distancia, pero podía ver objetos de distancia de unas pulgadas o pies), vision limitada (algunas limitaciones dependiendo en el ambiente)

Adapted from: *The Bilingual Special Education Dictionary: A Resource for Educators and Parents* by Richard A Figureroa and Nadeen T. Ruiz, The National Hispanic University, 14271 Story Road, San Jose, CA 95127-9989.

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